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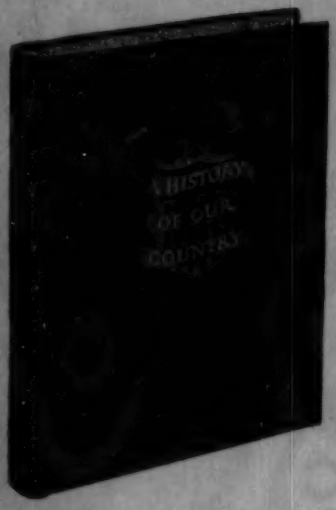
OFFICIAL JOURNAL, NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

SPECIAL ISSUE
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Editor's Page

SHARING IDEAS AND PRACTICES

THIS issue of *Social Education* features the Unesco seminar program with emphasis on the meetings held in Brussels and Montreal during the summer of 1950. The fact that these two seminars were devoted to an examination and evaluation of textbooks is important. Far more significant, however, are the underlying assumptions upon which the entire seminar program has been constructed. One assumption is that mutual understanding and progress depend upon the free flow of ideas. Another assumption is that ideas are exchanged most effectively when individuals can meet together to discuss their common problems.

The validity of these assumptions is beyond debate, but the extent to which we have tried to facilitate the flow of ideas is another matter, and it is time more of us began to ask ourselves a few pointed questions. The place to begin is at home. Do the teachers in my school observe each other and exchange ideas and practices? Do we, in the process of organizing a new curriculum, take advantage of the fact that hundreds of other groups have wrestled with a similar problem, or do we carry on our work as though we were alone in the world? Do we try to share our ideas and practices with the community around us, striving by this means to win its understanding and secure its contributions, or do we carry on behind our own veil of complacency or indifference?

This editorial flows from a conviction that one of the most pressing educational problems of our day is the need for a far more systematic exchange of ideas and practices than we have ever envisaged in the past.

Obviously, the problem is not confined to education. It is one of the foremost problems of our time. We must find ways to prevent bureaucracy, both of government and of huge business concerns, from stifling initiative and impeding the flow of ideas. We must find ways to prevent the principle of seniority in labor unions from throttling originality and the creative impulses of workers. We must find more effective means to bring the voters, particularly those of our huge and complex cities, into closer relations with their elected leaders. We must, in short, discover or invent more effective methods for utilizing to the full the initiative and originality of the individual.

While we wrestle with this problem in our own sphere of everyday activity, we can take courage from the fact that much progress is being made. The Unesco seminar program is one specific, if small, example. There are others. Take, for instance, an incident that occurred about three years ago.

An Example of International Cooperation

ONE warm summer day in Paris in 1948," former ECA director Paul G. Hoffman related (*Life*, February 5, 1951), "Sir Stafford Cripps, then Britain's ascetic Chancellor of the Exchequer, and I were talking over the economic recovery obstacles that lay ahead. 'If we are to raise the standard of living in Great Britain,' he said, 'we must have greater productivity.' My heart quickened; this was the kind of talk I wanted to hear from a European. Then he continued. 'Great Britain has much to learn about that from the U.S. and . . .' he paused, 'I think we have a few manufacturing secrets we've been concealing for a generation or so that you might like to learn. Why don't we interchange this information?' "

As a consequence of *this* meeting and exchange of views, a flow of ideas, as well as a flow of goods, was set in motion. By the end of 1950 approximately 3,000 specialists from western Europe had come to the United States for visits ranging from three weeks to one year, and more than 500 specialists from the United States had gone to Europe.

Here is a vivid illustration of how an idea (in this case the idea was Sir Stafford Cripps') will, like the ripples from a stone thrown in a quiet pool of water, travel outward in everwidening circles. Social scientists call this process "cultural diffusion." It is the way men in all times have

learned from each other. Today, thanks to developments in transportation and communication, the widespread application of this process could quickly bring to people everywhere richer and more meaningful lives. Only man-made obstacles, of which the Iron Curtain is the most frightening but by no means the only example, prevent a flow of ideas across the face of the earth and a resulting flowering of civilization beyond man's wildest dreams.

MR. HOFFMAN'S enthusiasm for ECA's Technical Assistance Program grew out of his direct experience with projects ranging from the visits of single indivíduals to those of teams of experts. One such team was composed of Norwegian workers and labor leaders, chosen by individual unions in collaboration with the Norwegian Trade Union Congress. This group made a tour of the United States to observe industry, management-worker relations, and social conditions in general. Meanwhile, a similiar group had been sent to the Soviet Union. The reports of these two groups are illuminating.[1]

The delegation to the United States was favorably impressed. ". . . the American worker is today the best paid in the world. The purchasing power of his income places him in a class by himself," the report stated.

Why?

"The American standard of living rests on high production, which, in its turn, is connected with the country's immense natural resources, its enormous capital equipment, and its large and effective stock of workers. . . . Modern mass production of standardized goods is conditional on an almost unlimited market, especially if the advantages of mass production are to be utilized by concentration of production into large concerns. American industry works with a continent as its home market, and is able accordingly to plan the production of standardized goods on a very large scale. America's industrial strength lies in the fact that it can, as a united whole, draw on the natural resources of the different regions."

What lessons can Europeans draw from this conclusion? "Only a united Europe will ever have a chance of attaining the U.S.A.'s industrial production of today."

These brief excerpts represent merely a fragment of the report. Not all that the Norwegians had to say was favorable. As a general conclusion, however, they were able to state that "A visit to the United States gives one greater confidence in the ability of democracy to solve its problems." More important, perhaps, was the recommendation that the Norwegian Government should "consider whether the time has not arrived for following the example of the British Labor Government in taking the initiative toward the formation of a Norwegian-American Council of Production." In other words, the Norwegians said, let's regularize this process, let's have a more systematic program through which we can get together and share our ideas.

THIS group of Norwegians had learned what many other individuals had previously learned, and what many more of us have yet to learn, that there is no substitute for direct experience, no better way to foster understanding than by the face-to-face exchange of ideas and the free and open comparison of practices and methods.

We must redouble our efforts to develop this kind of activity. We need to strengthen our Unesco seminars and the teacher exchange programs at the international and the national levels. We need the technical assistance programs now operating through the United Nations, the Economic Cooperation Administration, the Department of State's Point Four Program, and numerous other agencies of government. And above all—for it is here that every one of us can play an immediate and effective part in the development of the larger program—we need to look at our own daily work. Are we working alone, more or less isolated from our fellows, more or less insulated from the invigorating currents of new ideas? If so, we can quickly remedy the situation. We can make it a point to get out and exchange ideas with our colleagues. We can begin in our own school, and we can broaden our opportunities by taking a more active part in the professional organizations that are open to us. These are small beginnings, to be sure, but they are the application of a principle that must some day govern the relations of all men if the world is to be fruitful and free.

[1] A summary of the reports was published by the Economic Cooperation Administration, Office of Information, under the title, *Norwegian Labor Looks at the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.*

The Far East in World History

Herbert J. Wood

THE events of the last few months have made each of us realize the very great importance of the Far East. The everyday life of virtually all American citizens is affected by the war in Korea. Our mode of life, our relation to our government, the future of millions of our young people, our attitudes toward military service in peacetime, all are being altered in a way that many of us had not foreseen and in a way that most of us had not looked for. It is, therefore, obvious why we are considering today the role of the Far East in world history.

Need for Increasing Emphasis on Far East

BUT, while the events of the present day are the immediate cause of our attention, there are other reasons why our thinking should be directed to the study of the history of eastern Asia. For one thing, the area contains the two countries with the largest population in the world, China with 450 million and India with 300 million. The story of the background and of the economic, social, religious, and political activities of such a large number of people is bound to be important. Then again, even a cursory glance at their history reveals a substantial number of technological and scientific achievements which their people have made. To mention only a few of the more obvious, the compass, gunpowder, silk, paper, numbers, which we mistakenly call "Arabic," and the zero which is so important in even the simplest mathematics.[1]

In the field of political theory, what country other than China has used for about 2,000 years a civil service system which made possible the selection of government officials on a basis of merit as demonstrated in a written examination? Or what country other than China has a record of so many centuries of religious differences without religious wars—a country in which religious freedom and toleration were the accepted standards of behavior? In agriculture, according to some authorities, the Chinese have extracted over the centuries greater yields from the soil than any other people. This they have done without rotation of crops and without artificial fertilizers.[2] It was because of their supremacy in the arts of civilization that many of the other peoples of eastern Asia adopted from the Chinese one after another of their cultural patterns. It is with some justification, therefore, that the Chinese have referred to their own country as the "Middle Kingdom"—the center of the universe. Hence, through an understanding of China, one can gain a better appreciation of Korea, Japan, and some of the countries of southeast Asia.

STILL another reason for increasing our emphasis on eastern Asia is to gain a better insight into the nature of the revolutionary movements sweeping over those areas today. Most of Asia was removed from the revolutions which profoundly altered Europe (and America) during the last four centuries. Almost all Asiatic countries have been experiencing in only recent years a renaissance, a commercial and industrial revolution simultaneously. These revolutions in turn are contributing, as they did in Europe, to profound political revolutions. Old patterns of thought and conduct are being challenged. Many new points of view are competing with each other for supremacy. But no clear ideas, objectives, or institutions have yet emerged. The result, for the present, is a bubbling fermentation in which the peoples are casting off the bondage of the past. All of eastern Asia is on the move though few seem to know just where they are going. Will the new governments save something from the past or will they be entirely new? Will they be patterned after those to be found in Western

Social studies teachers now engaged in a reexamination of their courses will read with interest and profit this timely discussion of the Far East in world history. The author is professor of Far Eastern history at the State College of Washington at Pullman.

His article is based on a paper presented at the National Council convention in Minneapolis.

[1] Bodde, Derk. *China's Gifts to the West.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1942.

[2] Legendre, A. F. *Modern Chinese Civilization.* London: J. Cape, 1929. See also Gerald Winfield, *China, the Land and the People.* New York: Sloane, 1948.

countries? Will they be communistic, fascistic, or democratic? Or will they develop still different forms of government unlike any of those to be found in the world today? Will the new governments side with either of the two major power blocs in our contemporary world or will they align themselves with neither? Did the Japanese fail in their military war but win in their ideological war with their slogan of "Asia for the Asiatics"? Have the memories of their contempt for the behavior of Western imperialists over the last 300 years burned so deeply that they will not be content until they have brought about redress for their grievances?

It is too early for anyone to answer these questions but the answers are important to all of us. One has only to survey the history of eastern Asia since 1905 to realize that the Western world has been and is still on the retreat. The day of European domination, which dawned so triumphantly when Vasco da Gama completed his voyage to Calicut in India in 1498, has ended. One has only to examine the list of countries newly admitted to the United Nations to realize that all of them save one which have achieved their independence since the end of World War II are in eastern Asia—India, Pakistan, Burma, Indonesia, the Philippines. In only two areas, Malaya and Indo-China, do Westerners still retain a degree of control. Elsewhere, political power has slipped from the hands of Westerners into the hands of the inhabitants of the former dependencies. As additional evidence of the capacity of these people to play an increasingly important role in world politics, we need only recall that it was the action of an Asiatic power which finally brought the United States into World War II; and it came close to inflicting upon us a disastrous defeat in the dark days of 1942. Finally, though we were heavily committed in Europe through the Truman doctrine, the Marshall Plan, and the North Atlantic Pact, it was events in a country of eastern Asia which precipitated us and the United Nations into a military situation the end of which is not yet in sight and into a political situation which is bringing about deep-seated changes in the world organization which might not have occurred otherwise or would not have come so soon.

TODAY, though we are not yet aware of all its implications, we are living in one world. It is not necessary to labor this point. It is thrown at us constantly in the press and over the air. What affects one part affects all. In the words of a recent writer in *Social Studies*, ". . . international politics truly occupies a global stage; no longer does a continent like Europe monopolize the world scene."[3] Since so many of our problems are world-wide, their solution can only be world-wide. If, in solving these problems, we are unable to make wise decisions because we do not understand the background of the people with whom we are dealing, we are headed for even greater trouble. Furthermore, with the opinions of so many people in eastern Asia hanging in the balance in a period of world history when decisions are being reached which have long-time implications, it seems likely that we are entering a phase in which the attitudes of Asiatics toward the West are going to be as important as the attitudes held by the West toward them.

In the United Nations there is an increasing evidence of the new situation. Witness, for example, the great concern felt over the question of what the Chinese are doing in Korea. Observe also the announced neutrality of India and the attempts of both major power blocs to woo India to their respective side. This is a historic moment in world history and a situation which we in the West must appreciate. A better understanding of Asia and its peoples would help to correct one of our common misconceptions about Asiatic peoples—that they are inferior. This may prove to be a matter of life and death. Hanson Baldwin, military editor of *The New York Times*, in a series of articles on the war in Korea, points out that our intelligence was faulty and he suggested that one of the basic reasons for this situation was "the American lack of understanding of the Asian and of the Oriental mind. We tended, despite the hard lessons taught us by the Japanese in World War II, to look down upon the Koreans as an inferior race. It was with the attitude of patronizing contempt that we went into action in Korea. We quickly discovered that the 'gook' was a good soldier." Mr. Baldwin ends his dispatch with these significant words, "Much of the future destiny of the United States, the United Nations and the world depends upon the Orient. Yet there are few Americans, and especially few military men, who understand these teeming diverse peoples."[4]

For those who are hesitant about accepting the words of a newspaper correspondent, here is the considered opinion of Charles Odegard, the ex-

[3] Fifield, R. H. "Contemporary Trends in World Politics." *Social Studies* 41:243-50; October 1950.

[4] *New York Times*, October 31, 1950. p. 4

ecutive director of the American Council of Learned Societies.[5]

> . . . In a way startling to behold, our lives have become intermingled with the politics of the Chinese. The creation of a Communist regime in China has seriously altered the balance of relations between the East and the West, and it has marked a great victory for Communism and the Soviet Union. As we try to assess the causes of defeat of our policy and to determine future policy suitable under these changed conditions, the repercussions shake our whole governmental structure, undermine confidence in the integrity of the State Department and the foreign service, stir up exacerbated party feeling, and spread a suspicion that eats into our whole body politic. Yet these consequences are seriously conditioned by some simple generalizations concerning the politics of China, whose validity surely needs to be checked by the American public against some real knowledge of the Chinese. We may well ask if we as a people have yet the educational experience which would enable us to reach informed judgments in this area where willy-nilly we are responsible for action affecting profoundly ourselves, the Chinese, and the rest of the world.

The Far East in the Secondary Curriculum

WHERE in our secondary educational curriculum is the opportunity for most of our future citizens to obtain this knowledge? In a few of our schools, particularly on the West Coast, there is an elective course called the Pacific Rim. In 1945, a survey of high schools in the state of Washington revealed that 20 percent of the schools offered this course or a similar one. Of the nine basic history courses offered in the state, this course ranked seventh, followed by ancient and medieval history. It was the only history course not required in any school. Only 3 percent of the students in the state in the last year of the war elected that course. The survey revealed that problems relating to the Far East were discussed incidentally in United States history and somewhat more extensively in courses in current history or current world problems, also largely elective, though required in some schools. But for the overwhelming majority of students, the only course in which some reference is made to Far Eastern areas is the course in world history. Even this course was offered in only 84 percent of the schools and required in only 12 percent.[6] In the nation as a whole, only two of the 48 states require a course in world history though it is generally offered in all the states.[7] There is, therefore, a frightening responsibility placed on the teachers of world history to educate Americans to world perspectives.

Of course, an examination of textbooks in world history cannot indicate the full extent of the emphasis placed on Far Eastern peoples for many teachers will, if they are qualified, supplement the information found in textbooks. However, since it is true that few teachers, until recent years, had an opportunity to become acquainted with eastern Asia in their own training, and it is reasonable to assume that considerable reliance has had to be placed on textbooks, we shall examine some of the textbooks in world history used in Americans schools.

THE use of Far Eastern materials is a relatively new development. In 1917 a total of 26 books in world history published between 1903 and 1917 were studied by Timothy Lew, a Chinese professor. He found that nine omitted any reference to the Far East and that the one devoting the largest amount of space to the area allotted 1 percent of the total. In the years before World War II there was an increase. A Harvard study in 1939 revealed that about 3 percent of the total space in world history books was devoted to the Pacific Islands, China, and Japan.

World War II focused the attention of all of us on the Pacific Area. Against our will, we were suddenly forced into war by a country about which our citizens knew little. New programs of study were hastily improvised. In our schools the conviction grew that we needed to know more not only about the enemy but also about our allies in Asia. Writers of textbooks took the cue, so that by 1944 the number of pages of textual account had increased to a total of 7 percent in seven of the most commonly used books in world history.

The American Council on Education and the Institute of Pacific Relations sponsored a study published in 1946 on the *Treatment of Asia in American Textbooks.* One part of this study dealt with world history. Although the authors of textbooks written during World War II made some effort to include new material in their texts, there were several weaknesses, and even some serious errors of fact. Those who conducted the survey found that, although all the books stressed the importance of geography in understanding

[5] Odegard, Charles E. "The Humanities Face the World Crisis." *The Educational Record* 31:297-98; July 1950.

[6] Wood, H. J., and Stewart, Buryl, unpublished manuscript. "A Survey of the Extent of Far Eastern Studies in High Schools of the State of Washington." Pullman, Washington, 1945.

[7] Hogan, J. J. and Nancy. "Education's Lack of World Perspective." *Social Studies* 41:257; October 1950.

the history of the Mediterranean and European Areas, only one included more than one sentence on the geography of China and Japan. When geographic information was given it was sometimes wrong or misleading in the sense that it conveyed a "glamorous impression based on generalities."[8] Most of the books had few maps which gave an adequate idea of the important geographic features of the area as a whole or of any country in particular.

WHEN the authors of the survey studied the content of the texts devoted to the chronological history of the Far Eastern countries, they found the situation to be as bad or even worse. In their words, "not more than one per cent of the contents of any of them was devoted to the rise and current development of the national cultures of this part of the world where more than half the human populations lives."[9] There was a consistent tendency to assume that none of the areas was important until it had the privilege of being brought into contact with the Western world. The effect on the student, of course, is obvious—the impression that very little of importance happened in the areas until they were "opened" by the West. Even then, some regions such as Korea, southeast Asia, and the Philippines were virtually ignored. Perhaps the thought was that the Philippines would be covered adequately in American history texts, but such was not the case according to the survey.

The development of social institutions, such as the family and religion was also almost completed ignored in these books published between 1942 and 1944. When religion was discussed, Buddhism was described as a religion of India; whereas, though it originated there, it has virtually disappeared, but is important in Burma, Ceylon, Siam, China, and Japan. The chief religions of India are Hinduism and Mohammedanism, though the texts do not give them as much attention as Buddhism. Indeed the story of social institutions and economic development was covered in 7.6 percent of the total of 7 percent of the space devoted to eastern Asia.

The problems of present-day Asia were also almost completely ignored. Little attention was given to China's struggle for a new type of government to replace the imperial system which was overthrown in 1911, the growth of nationalism with its corollaries, anti-foreignism and anti-imperialism in all the areas, the attempts to develop a new economy, the rise of Japanese militarism or any explanation as to why the Japanese met with such success in the early days of the war.

The section of the survey dealing with world history concludes with a listing of 17 specific recommendations for improving world history texts. The authors asserted that the writers and publishers of textbooks should not be unduly criticized. These people usually try to write for the market. Throughout the survey the publishers cooperated wholeheartedly with the staff and gave indication that they were ready to carry recommendations into effect.

In the light of the earlier survey covering books during World War II, it seemed important for this study to appraise some world history texts published since 1945. Accordingly eight texts were examined, including revisions of three mentioned in the earlier survey. Of these, one was published in 1945, one in 1946, one in 1947, one in 1948, and the other four in 1949. Of the three later editions of the texts included in the first survey, the total space devoted to Eastern Asia amounted to 2.8 percent. The other five allotted 7 percent of the total pages to this area, making an average for the eight texts of 5.4 percent.

Chief Defects of Textbooks

HERE then, is one of the chief defects of the texts. It is not that they are filled with errors. Indeed, some of the mistakes mentioned in the earlier report have been corrected. But, as any historian knows, impressions are made by information and points of view which are omitted as well as those presented. For example, none of the texts mentioned the great epics of India: the Mahabharata, the story of warriors, which contains one part (the Bhagavat-Gita), known to almost all Indians as one of the best injunctions to each man to perform his caste duty; or the Ramayana, whose heroine, Sita, has long been honored as the ideal type of woman and wife. Also ignored is Indian drama, with its delightful and revealing plays of human emotions, such as Shudraka's *The Little Clay Cart*, produced in New York in an English translation in 1924. On the other hand, all the texts emphasized the importance of the great Greek epics and dramas.

When early China is discussed, there is no mention of the school of thought known as the Legalist, which held that all men are essentially bad and that they must be regulated by strict laws

[8] Committee on Asiatic Studies. *Treatment of Asia in American Textbooks.* Washington: American Council on Education and the American Council Institute of Pacific Relations, 1946. p. 41.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 43.

rigidly enforced. Nor that China after a brief experience with a government based on that theory in the third century B.C. rejected it in favor of a government based more on principles taught by Confucius and his disciples. In discussing that great man of China, attention is usually directed to his emphasis on ancestor worship and on certain moral principles, whereas he made a great contribution to the field of government. As Professor Creel has recently pointed out, Confucius was a reformer. "He thought it was normal for men to cooperate; to strive, not to get the better of each other, but to promote the common welfare. In his opinion, a ruler's success should be measured by his ability, not to amass power and wealth for himself, but to bring about the welfare and happiness of his people."[10] Confucius did not live to see the "bloodless revolution" which he hoped for, but his followers succeeded later in establishing two basic principles in government, "the insistence that those who govern should be chosen not for their birth but for their virtue and ability, and that the true end of government is the welfare and happiness of the people."[11] Although another Chinese philosopher, Lao Tzu, is mentioned by name, there is no discussion of the Tao, his way of life. And yet, to quote Professor Creel again, his philosophy, Taoism, "has touched the mind of every Chinese. . . . It is responsible for much of their good humored scepticism, their tolerance, and their ability to enjoy life regardless of circumstances. . . . It is one of the prime ingredients of Chinese culture."[12]

Other important characteristics of the Chinese have generally been omitted, such as their belief in the theory of revolution as a basic principle of government. Important movements in Chinese history also are neglected, such as the reforms of Wang Mang in the first century A.D.; those of Wang An Shih in the eleventh century; or of the great Taiping rebellion of the mid-nineteenth century which started out as a social, economic, and religious reform movement. Surely some understanding of the political theories of Confucius and his belief that discontent with existing conditions stimulates change would give our American citizens a better perspective to understand the present changes in China and to realize that they are not entirely due to Karl Marx and his followers. Time does not permit a listing of all the important developments in eastern Asia which are omitted from these texts. But surely, if the purpose of world history texts, as the authors of one of these books say in their preface, is to "help pupils get a clearer understanding of the world in which they live,"[13] then we shall have to learn more about that part of the world which is now slighted.

The maps in most of the texts also reflect the impression that eastern Asia is not so important as Europe. In the eight texts examined there were 44 maps out of a total of 408 which dealt with Asia, many of these concerned with European powers in Asia, such as "Possessions of Foreign Powers in Asia in 1914" or "British India and the Indian States." If these were removed the disparity against eastern Asia would be even greater. In texts which include lists of important dates the same inequality exists. One book cites five dates in Asia as important ones, out of a list of 98.[14] Another lists only one out of a total of 66—Mutsuhito becomes Emperor of Japan.[15] The story is the same in the references cited for further study. One book mentioned two additional references on Asia, out of a total of 32—one by a newspaper correspondent, the other an article in *Life* magazine.[16] In another there were 26, from a total of about 750.

THERE were occasional errors of fact, some of which are rather significant. "Chinese civilization is very old, but we know little about the beginnings of it," says one text. But since the work of scholars in many fields has been so well summarized by Creel in his book, *The Birth of China,* published in 1937, we do know a great deal about part of the Shang dynasty dating back as far as 1400 B.C., a dynasty which was known primarily through myth and legend until the publication of Creel's study.[17] Then again, "Japan's army and many features of her constitution after 1889 were modeled after Germany's," declares another text, and "that fact explains why the Japanese government has so often been

(Continued on page 162)

[10] Creel, H. G. *Confucius the Man and the Myth.* New York: John Day Co., 1949. P. 2.

[11] *Ibid.,* P. 4.

[12] *Ibid.,* p. 196.

[13] Bining, Arthur C.; Howland, Arthur C.; and Shryock, Richard H. *This Our World: A Pageant of World History.* New York: Newson and Co. 1949, p. vii.

[14] Smith, Emma P.; Muzzey, D. S.; and Lloyd, Minnie. *World History—The Struggle for Civilization.* New York: Ginn and Co., 1949.

[15] Hughes, R. O. *The Making of Today's World.* New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1947.

[16] Smith, Muzzey, and Lloyd, *op. cit.*

[17] Creel, H. G. *The Birth of China.* New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1937.

Liberal Learning and the Spirit of '76

Richard Bardolph

ONE of the happiest coincidences in the history of American higher education is the circumstance that the year 1776, in many ways already the most memorable date of the modern epoch, should also have seen the birth of a society which took as its motto, "Love of wisdom, the helmsman of life," a society that was to become an important force in the encouragement and stimulation of liberal learning in America. The founders of Phi Beta Kappa built with greater wisdom and prevenience than they knew. Few years in the annals of human progress have been more fruitful, and none in the record of American civilization more freighted with destiny. In selecting their watchword, the earnest little band of students at the College of William and Mary, little though they could have sensed it, were affirming their allegiance to a principle that—far beyond the quiet lanes of Williamsburg—would become in time well-nigh the condition of survival for a new social order that was emerging at the same hour in history.

IN 1776 a Scottish engineer gave the world its first genuinely successful steam engine after he had labored for seven years to perfect the first crude model he had contrived in 1769. Within a generation this machine and the numerous progeny of mechanical prime-movers that it fathered was moving into mines, foundries, and factories and into the wheeled and floating carriers of traffic to relieve men of brutalizing toil and to make accessible to the mass of mankind commodities and comforts hitherto available only to the rich, if indeed they were available at all. By subjecting a monstrous power, formerly unknown and untamed, to the precise discipline of cylinder, flywheel, and piston, the work of the world could largely be freed from its dependence on capricious winds and waters and tired muscle—if men could but discipline themselves.

A SECOND declaration of independence that made the year 1776 forever memorable came with the publication of Adam Smith's profoundly influential book, *The Wealth of Nations.* This manifesto, hurled at the grotesque absurdities of mercantilism that had so long thwarted natural progress in the production and exchange of goods and services—this challenge to the blighting canon that the limits of the world's wealth, already reached, were fixed by nature's fiat and that the surplus of gold and silver in an imperial treasury was the measure of a people's well-being—made a ringing demand that could not long be denied. Soon the economic structure of the Western world was, though imperfectly, reconstituted and shifted to new, rational foundations. Free and expanding production and exchange by free men for use and for profit heralded an era of plenty and economic freedom—if men could but discipline themselves.

A THIRD blow for human freedom was struck in 1776 at Philadelphia when the Virginia planter penned his immortal declaration setting forth the principles of political liberty that were to undergird the American state. The theories of Locke and Sydney, of Harrington, Milton, and Thomas Hooker were in that fateful summer committed to a blueprint by the architect of the American Democracy, not as an intellectual exercise, but to be erected into a practical system. The function of the state was now to be the protection and promotion of the happiness, the preservation of the opportunity, of the people it served, and its sovereign was to be the people themselves. An era of political freedom was within men's grasp—if they could but discipline themselves.

All three of these freedoms, it will be at once perceived, depend for their proper exercise upon men of intelligence and good will, lest they turn again and rend us. How fitting it is then that the same year that heard these freedoms proclaimed should also have seen the founding of a society committed to the "Love of Wisdom, the

This article is a condensed version of a paper delivered before the Phi Beta Kappa chapter and the student body of the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina in March 1950. The author is an assistant professor of history in the Woman's College and was, in 1950, president of the College's Phi Beta Kappa society.

helmsman of life," a society that was to become a tireless exponent of liberal learning. Liberal learning seeks beyond information for wisdom and understanding, beyond facts for Truth. It reaches beyond the mere quest for meat and raiment to the quest for the Holy Grail: to peace of soul, to mercy and brotherhood, to communion in the treasuries of the library with the great minds and spirits, poets and prophets, scientists and artists, scholars and gentle physicians of body and mind. It seeks counsel from the wise and noble of every age who have made man their proper study, who have inquired diligently into the nature of goodness and beauty and truth, who have stood on the frontiers of the mind and spirit, who have pushed on into the unknown or the dimly perceived and brought back to their fellow men the record of their explorations which have made the world forever richer. And what age has needed them more desperately than our own era of competing allegiances and loyalties, of materialism and crumbling moralities, of blunted esthetic sensibilities, and the deification of naked force?

In the world order where men as never before are beating their plowshares into swords, their pruning-hooks into spears, and mobilizing their minds and resources for the production of ever more fearful engines of destruction, the still small voice is all but drowned in the clangor of martial preparation. The "practical" man, the self-styled realist—the general and the politician, the ruler of empire, political or economic, the builder of Things—these since civilization's youth have had small patience for the dreamer of dreams: the scholar and the philosopher, the artist and the poet, the prophet and the priest. It may, alas, be too late. The practical men may have built too well. But perhaps there is yet time to reconstruct the world if men have the heart and mind to do it. For so long as there are people in the world there will be those of us who cannot believe that the doom of mankind is sealed beyond recall. Though the practical men and the realists, who conjured up the hell that yawns before us, mock their hopes, men of creative intelligence and good will must go on urging upon the world a new dedication to the love of wisdom, the helmsman of life. They must go on beseeching mankind to lay aside hatred and strife for understanding and sympathy; to foreswear the cult of fanatical nationalism, which is nothing more nor less than self-interest multiplied by population; to look upon the world as their country, the advancement of mankind their calling; to discuss their differences with open minds and serene hearts in the spirit of reasonable men taking counsel one with another. They must go on believing that the peoples of the world will yet walk together in majesty and in peace.

AND what of our own country? The drift of world affairs is profoundly influenced (indeed its outcome may in large measure be determined) by the failure or success of the American democratic experiment. Progress toward the realization of the American dream has depended since the founding of the republic upon an enlightened citizenry, guided by leaders whom they themselves choose from an open aristocracy of mind and character. That at least is the goal. And in America, as in the world, this is preeminently the time for a new dedication to wisdom, the helmsman of life.

In America the good citizen, when he contemplates the shaping of public policy, reckons with the master fact of American political life: that the principal limitation on what can be done is imposed by what our people think is or is not the "American Tradition." The trouble lies not in the historic pattern of American progress but in a distorted view and an imperfect understanding of what it has been.

The original statement of the American dream of a decent, democratic society was first drafted, by scholarly men, in the Declaration of Independence and the first state constitutions of the newly independent commonwealths. Thereupon, quickly recovering itself, an alarmed bourgeoisie, frightened at the prospect of populistic and democratic excesses, and with the alarums of Captain Shays ringing in their ears, promptly—almost furtively—drafted a conservative constitution omitting all reference to personal freedom and erecting elaborate defenses for property. From that time forward, the stresses engendered by the conflict of property rights and human rights has brought us by fits and starts closer to an espousal of the latter at the expense of the former if the difference could not be composed without injury to either.

THE Constitutional Revolution in America, spanning several decades and bodying forth at last around 1900 in an acknowledged shift from legal justice to social justice; the widening scope of governmental authority in the attempt to preserve the traditional goals of the American democracy and to meet the threat of the new menaces to these values; the shift from parochial

to state, and from state to federal dominance in response to the maturation of our social order; all of these and other avenues of reform have been hammered out with traditional, democratic, American tools. Every era of progress has been almost drowned in the reaction that swirled over it in the years following, but there was always a Jacksonian revolution to revitalize the drooping spirit of a Jeffersonian revolution, an age of Lincoln to succeed an age of Jackson, a Progressive era to succeed that, and a New Deal to resume the work where its predecessors had been forced to lay it aside for a season.

Expanding horizons, forward movement, is the very stuff of which the real American tradition is compounded. The knowledge that is power, provided in our generation by an enlightened citizenry and liberally educated scientific and social engineers, is a critical need if the onward march to a decent society is to continue. The words of the patron saint of the American Democracy, spoken a century and a half ago and now carved in marble on the Jeffersonian memorial in Washington serve as well as an admonition to policy-makers in our day as they did in his:

> Laws and institutions must go hand in hand with the progress of the human mind. As that becomes more developed, more enlightened, as new discoveries are made, new truths discovered, institutions must advance also, and keep pace with the times. We might as well require a man to wear still the coat which fitted him when a boy, as civilized society to remain ever under the regimen of their barbarous ancestors.

BUT a nation can be no wiser, no better than the individuals that compose it, and liberal learning must therefore concern itself above all else with the development of good men. It draws upon the scientist for more light upon the human organism and the impulses that move it. It looks to the artist and the poet for insights denied to men of lesser sensitivity and for distillations of beauty that mankind may lay like a healing unction to its distempered soul. It contemplates the long record of human history; for conduct, whether private or public, unless it be informed by a sense of what has gone before is a plant without roots. It ponders the testament of the philosophers of every age who have consecrated themselves to the ceaseless quest for truth.

Liberal learning steeps itself in the streams of Greek and Roman culture, of Judaism and Christianity—these healing rivers that now flow mingled together through our own civilization wherein men, if they but would, could cleanse themselves like Naaman of their leprosy. Would that men would listen to the voices of the prophets who were borne upon these streams: the Athenian teacher adjuring men who would order the affairs of others first to establish order in themselves lest their conduct spring from anger, pride, or vanity; the Roman statesman counselling men to tame the tiger in the mind by reverencing the Law; the prophet of Israel intoning "In righteousness shalt thou be established," and again, "And what doth the Lord require of thee but to do justly and to love mercy and to walk humbly before thy God"; the Nazarene in the Judean hills admonishing men to forgive one another till seventy times seven and to lay up treasure where moth and rust cannot corrupt; the Angelic Doctor laboring to reconcile with the reasons of the mind the reasons of the soul that the mind knows nothing of. For what should it profit a man if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul?

THE FAR EAST IN WORLD HISTORY

(Continued from page 159)

controlled by military men and why the representatives of the people have had less influence in public affairs than in countries like Great Britain and France."[18] Any survey of Japanese history will show that the control by Japan's military men over the government dates back to the establishment of the first shogunate in 1192—a date that it might be well to remember!

Finally, it seems logical to suggest that in view of the emphasis placed on European or Western civilization and the inference in most of the texts that eastern Asia was not important until it came into contact with the West and that we need pay little attention to these people because, in the words of one author, they contributed little "to that civilization from which our own is derived,"[19] our texts are somewhat presumptuous in identifying what is essentially a history of Western civilization as world civilization. Fur-

(Continued on page 195)

[18] Hughes, *op. cit.*, p. 646-47.

[19] Hughes, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

History Teaching in England

Francis Scott and Henry W. Bragdon

The following pages contain two discussions of a book recently published in England (*The Teaching of History,* issued by the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools. Cambridge University Press, 1950. xiv + 221 p. $2.50).

Mr. Scott, Page Scholar to the United States in 1948-1950, teaches history at Plymouth College, Plymouth, England. Mr. Bragdon, Fiske Scholar to Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1928-1929, teaches history at Phillips Exeter Academy, Exeter, New Hampshire.

AN ENGLISH VIEW

IN ENGLAND, history is taught; in America, social studies are discussed. They belong to your concept of education as a project of social engineering destined to transform society through the school that portrays the ideals of American society. By English standards, you proceed in a leisurely vocal fashion to a much later age and your education is less specialized. With us, the intellectual pace must be faster. Cleverer children are selected for grammar schools at 11 and they begin to leave at 16, though a growing number enjoy the more mature society and more specialized education of the sixth form until they are 18 or 19. The few who go to the university—probably with a local or state scholarship—pursue there what you would consider a graduate course. History in the English grammar schools is thus a course of general interest and understanding followed by practically all students for, say, two periods a week, and is also a specialized modern study pursued in detail by part of the sixth form.

History in England is a literary art, with its traditions maintained by a craft of specialists at the schools and universities. With us the educators and the teachers of teachers have not their American influence—not for us the double-barrelled techniques and the carefully scheduled objectives. Enlightened and new methods are encouraged and spread by personal contact as well as by various courses run by the Inspectorate; but it is upon self-help that most of us rely. This brief volume is the work of a committee of practicing teachers in grammar schools, and in it they discuss their purposes, materials, and methods from their own and other people's experience. Here are not statistics about the particular courses followed by different age-groups, for we do not collect such figures, and teachers are free to compile and develop their own courses unhampered by regulation. But examples are given of many different syllabuses actually in use, showing, for example, the different use of practical and local studies, and the varying emphasis on contemporary and national history.

The history we prize most is the subject for a mature mind: "For in democracy as we know it the individual is something more than a citizen, and a history course devoted solely to the training in citizenship would be open to grave objection. History has much to give to the training of 'the whole man.' " We pay much attention to critical judgment and reasoned argument, and we base our faith on no objective test but in the essay. We hope to inspire or develop some special interest in the arts, in politics, or philosophy that will continue into adult life. With the younger child, however, we can be content to stir the imagination and extend the understanding by enlarging the world he knows in time and space.

Yet when all this has been said about the differences between our aims—just as in other connections we emphasize the differences between our political institutions—there remains much more than a common language between us. I think it is in the many methods and "tricks of the trade" that you will find the most interest. The authors recognize that the occupational disease of their profession is too much talk on their own part, and they have devoted half the book to a diversity of methods and activities for stimulating group and individual approaches to the past and present. I wonder whether their plan of a history workshop is not more likely to be realized in those schools of yours that have more lavish equipment than ours, but I fancy all

who read will appreciate the simple and practical plans for storing models and producing a diorama case. You'll find, too, the kind of books we think a boy might read and which we should supply in the library—for with us the textbook is not so long and so weighty and we hope to lead some on to the works of the historians proper.

Both world history and modern problems are little stressed. When we tell the story of Britain, we follow the explorers and merchants, the missionaries and fighters over the oceans and continents as well as round our little island. By tradition we tend to leave a great gulf between the end of history and the present time, for it is difficult to see contemporary events in their correct historical perspective. In practice, however, under the unchanged title of history, we feel free to allude to modern problems. In this book you will find no spectacular revolution in terminology, but rather a critical assessment of the reforms and changes that are taking place even now in our history teaching. In the work of many hands it is natural that much should be said on both sides, but a sturdy common-sense, appreciative of innovation, pervades it all, and—thank goodness—not a little wit.

AN AMERICAN VIEW

THIS little book, prepared by a committee of eleven practicing teachers in English secondary "grammar schools," deserves to be widely read in this country, if only to provide perspective on American practices. *The Teaching of History* is also a refreshing volume for the classroom teacher, because it is based on practical classroom experience. No "educators" pawed over it. It has had the benefit of no foundations with their experts-within-experts and committees-within-committees. This book obviously comes direct from its stated source, "The Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools." By the way, what a delightfully unpretentious title for an organization! It has the same ring as the name of the great British railwaymen's union, "The Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants." Both the assistant masters and the railway servants apparently accept their station in life. The evidence is that those who wrote *The Teaching of History* not only accept but enjoy their jobs. The book is full of the shop talk of men who "gladly teach." For this reviewer, a classroom teacher himself, the most interesting portions concerned the *minutiae* of teaching: how to train students to take notes, how to set essays, maps and map-making, a "history workshop."

Yet, as has already been suggested, the larger interest in this volume is the light it sheds on the difference between history as taught in British secondary schools and history as taught at the same level in this country. The materials of a complete comparison are not to be found, however, in *The Teaching of History*, because it deals only with boys' grammar schools. Thus there is no direct information about the teaching of the other sex, nor about the great majority of the less gifted who find themselves in other secondary schools. The following points of comparison seem reasonably clear, however:

1. The British tend to teach relatively more formal history than is found in American schools, and are often extraordinarily cautious about carrying history to the present. In some schools, history courses stop in 1914. Americans tend to abandon history for study of the contemporary world. Furthermore, history courses in America tend to be oriented toward the present. In some schools, indeed, classes start with the present and work backwards. In British practice, there is less danger of warping the past to fit the present, and probably more chance for students to gain a sense of historical perspective. American practice should tend, however, to stimulate more immediate interest and to contribute more immediately to effective citizenship.

2. Except for those students who specialize in their last years of secondary school, history in British schools has to be sandwiched in with six or seven other courses. There are typically three classes per week, with little or no preparation time. Hitch British practice to the necessity of preparing students for written examinations, and historical study may become simply an arid business of learning a syllabus and regurgitating it. The average American student has more time, inside class and out, for social studies, and the courses are generally less tied to external examinations. Yet much of the extra time for social studies in America has been taken from the study of foreign languages; Americans may be wrong in sacrificing such important tools of international understanding and communication.

3. The British differentiate children of different abilities early in the game—perhaps too early.

(Continued on page 170)

Materials for Teaching Social Geography

Helen Harter

WHAT are the materials for teaching social geography? But first, what is social geography? The simplest definition I know says that social geography is the study of the interrelationships between man and the earth. That is a simple definition, but it is an abstract definition. Psychologically speaking, the words in it are symbols for recall. They have only such meaning as we bring to them from our own experience with concrete reality.

Even man, used in that way, is an abstraction. We do not mean man, the species, man the abstraction. We mean people—living, breathing, working, worrying people. The word social implies that we are talking about people in a society—about people living in groups that have structure of some kind, a cohesive element—interdependence between person and person.

And "earth" as used in that definition is a symbol. We do not mean literally this big round ball we are standing on. At least, we do not mean only that. Neither do we mean literally and exclusively another concept of earth—the dirt the farmer plows. We mean also the wind and sun and rain, the heat of summer and the cold of winter. We mean, for Minneapolis, the Mississippi River, the falls that suggested power for flour mills. We mean the earth as we see it here, and we mean the earth far away.

Now we come to the word interrelationships. On the one hand we have groups of living, breathing, working, planning people. On the other hand we have the land—the hills and valleys, the mountains and plains, the rivers and lakes and oceans, the minerals in the ground, the winds that blow, the plants and animals.

This discussion of materials for the teaching of social geography was originally presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies in Minneapolis, in the fall of 1950. Miss Harter is social studies editor with the Rand McNally Co.

Everything that people do, they do somewhere on this earth. There may be other and better worlds than this. But it is not our job as social studies teachers to prepare children to live in them. It *is* our duty to help children to live more effectively in *this* world. Living effectively in *this* world is what we mean by social competence.

The place where we do our living conditions almost everything we do. I am not talking geographic determinism. The environment does not compel people to do anything. There is no inevitable adjustment that people make to any kind of environment. The environment imposes limitations and offers opportunities. That is all it does.

PEOPLE change. Their knowledge increases. Their techniques for using the environment change. Their social structure changes—the kinds of groups they live in; the interrelationships between person and person within a given group; the *size* of the groups that come into a common structure. Let's go back to the wheat belt for a quick illustration. The wheat belt was once grassland. The people who lived on it two centuries ago were buffalo hunters. Those people, the Indians, saw the grassland as a wonderful hunting ground. We all know how they reacted to their interpretation of that environment. We know that their response to the grassland environment led to a nomadic way of life, to an almost complete dependence upon the buffalo for food, shelter, and clothing. Then Europeans brought horses to America. A new factor entered the interrelationships between the Indians and their environment. The Indians became much more effective buffalo hunters because of the greater speed and mobility that horses gave them.

Next came the settlers from the East. People adjust their activities, not so much to the environment as it is as to their interpretation of the environment—to the environment as *they* see it in the light of *their* knowledge, *their* understanding, *their* experience.

For a long time settlement stopped at the edge of the forest region. People in those days believed that the forest ended because the soil was too poor to grow trees. As they saw the grassland, it could not be good soil for farms. Then a few adventurous pioneers discovered that there was nothing at all wrong with the soils of the grasslands. But settlers still had trouble. The grassland sod was exceedingly hard to plow. It was easier to clear the forest land of trees than to clear the grassland of age-old sod. A technological advance solved that problem—the invention of the John Deere plow.

Settlers poured into the eastern edge of the grasslands, where they could do general farming and where they were still in close contact with the older settled areas. Farther west there was not enough rain for general farming. There was enough rain for wheat. But man cannot live by bread alone, in a very literal sense. Wheat farmers have to sell their wheat. Hence the wheat land was not settled until the coming of the railroads.

I have left out many factors. What I have said has been an attempt to give quickly some concrete content to the concept of interrelationships in our definition of geography—the study of interrelationships between man and the earth.

BUT have I been talking about geography at all? Or have I been talking about history? That brings me to another part of my definition of geography in the social studies—not geography as an adult discipline—as the field of research for professional geographers—but geography in the social studies. Geography is not a body of content, separate from the content of the rest of the social studies field. It is a point of view, a frame of reference, a way of looking at society, a tool in critical thinking about people living in social groups on this earth, now or in the past. Man's interrelationships with the earth have depth in time. They also differ as people differ in technical knowledge and skill, in political and economic grouping, in access to markets, in culture. For a way of looking at the earth is a part of every culture, and their way of looking at the earth is a conditioning factor in every people's way of using the earth.

But *time* is a fourth dimension in all good geographic thinking as surely as it is a fourth dimension in the thinking of a modern physicist. Man's adjustment to his environment in the past conditions his relationship with the environment in the present. My illustration from the settlement of the wheat belt is full of examples.

Geography Materials

I AM supposed to talk about teaching materials for social geography, and so far I have not talked about them. So far I have talked only about what geography means. But I cannot talk about materials effectively until you know what I mean by the words I use. I have tried to tell you what I mean by the words social geography, and geography in the social studies.

I have not said anything about geography in different kinds of social studies programs. For what I have to say, it makes very little difference whether geography is a separate subject in your school system, or whether it is part of a general social studies program. In either system you are trying to help children find their way toward socially competent living. In social geography, the thing we want to teach, I believe, is a way of looking at the earth and man, a way of thinking about them. That is our objective, whether we say we are teaching geography or whether we weave geographic understandings into another kind of program. In either case the objectives are the same, and the concepts and understandings that lead toward the objectives are the same. In one there is danger that the earth may overshadow man. In the other there is danger of forgetting that all human activities go on in a definite place on the earth, under a given set of environmental factors, and are conditioned by those environmental factors. Either approach requires a good teacher to be fully effective, and good teaching materials.

What are the teaching—and learning—materials for geography in the social studies? Everything in the world. Anything in the world.

TO YOU, as a social studies teacher, the first and most valuable teaching materials are probably the things you and your pupils can see through your classroom window. They give you a place to start. All understandings must be built of concepts that are ultimately based on reality.

A child's concepts—or our own—rest ultimately on the things he has experienced for himself—the things he has seen, heard, smelled, tasted, and touched. Those are the things our initial concepts of anything are made of, and we have no other bricks to use in building the foundations for our understandings.

One area of geographic understanding concerns latitude. What is your basic concept of latitude? What comes into your mind when I say the word "latitude"? Is it a line on a map? But people have no relationships with a line on a map. Is it

a definition? "Latitude means distance from the equator," perhaps? People have no relationships with a formal definition either. You cannot build geographic understandings on those concepts until they have been given content in terms of concrete reality.

I'll tell you my concept of latitude, though I admit I did not have it until a few years ago. I was driving south, up the Red River Valley, on a morning in early June. I saw fields of little plants, just a few inches tall. I was a stranger in those parts and didn't recognize the plants at first. Then I decided they must be flax and verified my guess by stopping to ask. I went on up the valley, almost due south, until early afternoon. In the language of geography, I covered about two degrees of latitude. Now the fields of flax were the most heavenly blue I ever saw. The plants were tall and rippled like water in the wind. Had they grown noticeably in those few hours? No, I was two degrees of latitude farther south. Because I was farther south, the growing season had begun a little earlier. Farmers had planted their flax a little earlier, and they would harvest it a little earlier. Those little flax plants just beginning to grow that I saw in the morning and the fields of heavenly blue that I saw in the afternoon are forever part of my concept of latitude. The content you can help your pupils build into their concept of latitude will not be flax plants, probably; but it can be something else just as real, just as directly a part of their own personal experience.

The actual places we study in geography are not very important. A child in the United States may give the largest share of his time to the United States. A Canadian child may give his most intensive study to Canada, a British child to Britain, an Italian child to Italy, and an Australian child to Australia. By their various routes, all can reach the same goal. All can grow toward the same understandings of man's interrelationships with the earth.

The important thing is not what part of the earth we cover this year. It is that in building understandings we always reach back to a child's experiences with reality. That is the way to avoid mere verbalization and reach true understanding. When we talk about curriculum building and social studies programs and grade placement of areas of study, we are usually thinking about grade placement of areas on the earth's surface. We should be thinking about areas of experience that can be used to build areas of functional understanding. By functional understanding I mean understanding that becomes part of a child's thinking—of his mental and emotional pattern of behavior.

FOR my second category of teaching—and learning—materials, I can think of no name except miscellaneous reading.

Our children are constantly surrounded by all kinds of reading that can become for you teaching materials in social geography, and for them learning materials. They read books about people and places. They read newspapers and magazines. They see pamphlets published by various organizations from government agencies to commercial advertisers.

These can all be valuable materials in teaching social geography. But remember that very few of them are organized for that purpose. They are usually fragmentary and usually factual. Few of them were prepared to give children insight into the relationships between man and the earth. They seldom interpret geographically. Organization toward a goal and interpretation geographically is up to you.

Maybe your pupils want to organize a unit of study based on a search for such materials. It can be done, of course, and made effective. You can start anywhere on this earth and reach any destination on this earth. But when you start on a trip you have to know the destination, or the chances against your getting there are overwhelmingly great. You do not know what route to take or what means of transportation to use. But if the child already knows the destination and how to get there, there is not much point in his going. At best he is just setting out on a pleasant vacation trip, and perhaps enjoying some new scenery along the way.

Certainly a pupil should be allowed many choices along the way. Making choices should be part of a child's social experience at every level. But we do have goals that we want children to reach. If you just hold the goal in your own mind and wait for your children to stumble over it, there may be a considerable amount of waste effort involved. But maybe that is a controversial subject and you won't all agree with me.

One danger to be guarded against in the use of these miscellaneous reading materials is their spottiness. They give children a wrong impression by emphasizing the unusual, the romantic, the limited. For example, there are a great many Eskimo stories. Children must grow up thinking that Eskimos are important people and that there are a lot of them. I know I did. But Eskimos as-

sumed far less importance to me when I read that all the Eskimos in the world could be seated at once in the Yale Bowl with plenty of room left over. I looked up the statistics and found that it was true.

Not long ago one of the editors in my office was making a survey of new materials that might be used in geography. She found almost nothing on the Middle West. It just isn't romantic enough. But it is the major food-producing region of the earth.

PERHAPS I should mention statistics among these miscellaneous materials. Statistics do not have the standing they used to have as teaching materials in geography, but children do need to learn to use them. The question is, what kind of statistics and how should we use them? A child does not learn anything significant about man's interrelationships with the earth by learning how many oranges are grown in Texas compared with the number of oranges grown in Florida, California, Spain, and Brazil. At best, he gets the impression that oranges grow all over Texas and that is not a good impression for him to get. I know from personal experience that he should not believe that oranges grow all over Texas.

As you probably know, human beings are fallible and mistakes happen in the best editorial offices. Some years ago one of my company's textbooks appeared to say that oranges grow in the El Paso section of the Rio Grande Valley. I don't know how it happened. I assure you that the author knew better and the editor knew better. Probably a sentence or two was left out in copying or setting type and the proofreader overlooked the omission. However it happened, the readers were not taken down the valley from El Paso to Brownsville before they read about oranges. I heard about those oranges from the El Paso Chamber of Commerce, the superintendent of schools, the editor of one of the newspapers, and a number of mothers whom I met at a woman's club luncheon. The error was fixed promptly. We did not want children to believe that oranges grow all over Texas, or even all up and down the Rio Grande Valley.

There is a legitimate use of statistics—not with very young children, of course. I have been playing with some statistics myself. I have been making a map using statistics from the 1950 census. I made it to answer a question in my own mind about population shifts between 1940 and 1950. The map answers my questions. Older children could do the same thing with statistics and find for themselves many interesting geographic problems to study.

AS A third classification there are visual materials. Since there is not time to talk about everything, I am going to limit this category to pictures—moving, still, colored, black and white—pictures prepared for school use, and pictures not so prepared. No one would attempt to teach geography without pictures. They are the next best substitute for reality. They can expand a child's concept from the initial one based on his own immediate personal experience and make it include all similar things in the whole world.

But pictures have their limitations. They are two-dimensional. They do not include the feel of things and most of them do not include the sound of things. Pictures record only facts, and they do not even record all the facts. I know a little boy who, at the age of three, knew all about elephants. He knew the word and could say it. He recognized a picture of an elephant whenever he saw one. He knew what color an elephant is and what shape it is. Then one day his father took him to the zoo. When he saw the elephants he looked at them with astonishment and awe for a moment. Then he turned to his father and said, "I didn't know they would be so big." You see, pictures are not a complete substitute for experience with reality. The factor of size was wholly missing from the little boy's concept of an elephant. And what is an elephant without his size?

Pictures are static, too. Even a moving picture shows action through only a short segment of time. Alone, pictures can show only a little of man's interrelationships with the earth.

I want to repeat what I said a moment ago. Pictures expand a child's concepts, if they are well chosen. Let's take a simple example. What is a mountain? Children in this part of the country, if they have never traveled in mountain regions, have very little experience as a basis for their concept of mountains. I have heard of this happening in a lowland classroom. A teacher asked her children what a mountain is. They all put their hands together to form a peak.

That was their concept of a mountain—a single, steep, sharp, peak, rising from nothing. With that concept of a mountain, children could build no understanding whatever of the interrelationships between man and mountains. But pictures could have expanded even that concept, inadequate and positively wrong as it was, until it had become valid and useful.

FOURTH, we come to maps and globes. They are useful materials, too. But their function is not the same as the function of pictures. Maps, both flat maps and globe maps, are symbols. They are abstractions. We can safely assume that any normal child gets some meaning from a picture by the time he starts to school. We cannot assume that any child at any age gets significant meaning from a map unless he has learned to read a map. He has to learn to read a map, just as he has to learn to read those black marks on a page that we call words.

I showed you a map a few minutes ago. You did not know the symbolic meaning of the colors on that map until I told you. You didn't know because I gave the colors their meaning myself. So far as I know, no one ever used those exact colors with that exact meaning before. In other words, you had to learn to read the symbols before the map had meaning.

For social geography, the most significant use of maps and globes is for learning special relationships on the earth. I did not say for the location of places. I have seen this happen. In a geography class the name of a place is mentioned. The teacher says, "Johnnie, come up to the map and show us where Minneapolis is." Maybe Johnnie has to grope a bit, but Minneapolis is printed in large type. He soon finds the word and points.

Johnnie has not used a map. He has merely recognized a word. The teacher might just about as well have written Minneapolis on the blackboard. The symbol on the map means nothing until it is interpreted in its relationship to all the other symbols on the map. It means no more than a word in a book means before it is interpreted in its relationships to all the other words in the sentence.

The location of Minneapolis does have meaning. This city has significant spatial relationships. It is close to some resources and raw materials, far removed from others. It is not located in the midst of an area of very dense population. The Minneapolis-St. Paul metropolitan area is not very near any other large metropolitan area. It has a definite relation to transportation routes, natural and man-made. It has latitude and altitude. If the pupil knows how to compare maps, he can find the location of Minneapolis on climate maps even though it is not named on them. From product maps he can learn some of things farmers grow near Minneapolis. From a population map he can find out the density of population around Minneapolis. These are some of the things I mean by spatial relationships. Minneapolis has spatial relationships with the Middle West, with the United States, with North America, and with the whole round world.

AND now for my fifth type of teaching materials, I come to textbooks. How should you use a textbook? I wouldn't try to answer that question for *you*, with *your* pupils, in *your* community. The only recommendation I would make positively is a negative one. Don't use your textbook as a mere reading book. That has been known to happen. Children read, aloud in turn, through description, interpretation, map studies, suggestions for activities—all without looking at a map or carrying out an activity.

A textbook is a tool. It is not a reading book. It is meant to be read, of course, but reading the book is not the objective. The objective is understanding. Some parts may be read quickly for interest and enjoyment. Some parts may be skimmed for specific information. Some parts should be a guide for really intensive study. You will know which parts if you know your textbook and your pupils and have in mind valid goals that you wish your pupils to attain.

The words in the best textbook in the world are not a substitute for any of the materials I have named so far. But a textbook can do several things for you and your pupils that the other materials cannot do, alone.

First, a good textbook can be a guide. It can help you and your pupils reach the goals of the social studies. The author had in mind as he wrote exactly the same goals you have in mind as you teach. He organized the content of the book toward those goals. The only functional knowledge is organized knowledge. Learning, without structure and organization, becomes mere memorization of facts. And no reputable geography author, editor, or publisher wants your pupils to memorize the facts in a textbook. He wants them to build understandings out of the information he provides. He wants them to learn to think critically about relationships between man and the earth. He wants them to recognize values.

For you and your pupils a textbook can be a guide in organizing your learning. The author had time himself to see the pattern whole, without having to plan specifically for tomorrow morning's class period. The author should know more about geography and what geography can contribute to social values than the average classroom teacher knows. The teacher must know so many other things, too, that he seldom has time to get a highly specialized knowledge of geogra-

phy and of what geography has to offer as a tool in social understanding.

Second, a good textbook can give balance and continuity to a program. It should place the heaviest emphasis upon the usual and normal rather than upon the spectacular, the quaint, and the highly romantic. Its materials should be drawn largely from the parts of the earth that mean most to modern American children. And to your children, the Middle West is more important than Eskimo land.

Third, a good textbook can help your pupils interpret their learning, from whatever source. It can help them to widen their concepts to include larger and larger areas of meaning. It can help them to build their specific concepts into patterns of understandings and values that include the whole earth and all its people and the interrelationships between people and the earth everywhere.

There are dangers to be avoided in the use of textbooks. The greatest danger of all is a use that is too cut and dried. A textbook is a tool in understanding. Let me say it again. It is a tool. It is not something to be used for a reading lesson. It is not something to be learned by heart and said back to you. Another danger is abstraction. I mean separation from the pupil's experience. The other day I heard about a group of fourth graders in a town on the Mississippi River. They read about the Mississippi River in their textbooks but they did not know where the Mississippi is. To them that big stream of water they had seen and played beside all their lives was The River. It was not the Mississippi River they had read about in their textbooks.

NOW I have come back again to my beginning. All understanding is based on experience. But you must help a child interpret his experience. The children I just told you about had had experience with the Mississippi River. They read the words Mississippi River in their textbook. But they had never made the connection between their experience and the words.

Now I am going to make a perfectly simple statement to you. I am going to state a fact that everyone knows. "Denne by har store möller."

Do you know what I said? Some of you may. But I am sure most of you did not understand that very simple statement. I said, "This city has big flour mills."

Now you all understand me. You have seen those mills hundreds of times if you live here. Even if this is your first trip to Minneapolis, you have probably seen them by now. They are part of your experience. I made the connection for you between the words I said and your own experience with reality. Only you can make that connection for your children, for only you know what their experiences have been. The textbook author does not know. Maybe I am saying now that teachers are teaching materials. They are—the most important teaching materials of all.

HISTORY TEACHING IN ENGLAND

(Continued from page 164)

The contacts of this reviewer with English secondary school teachers suggest that they tend, furthermore, to judge their success by the number of scholarships and high examination grades won by the very best students. The British push their intellectual elite along and give them stiff intellectual training. In the United States the tendency, with many exceptions, in social studies seems to be toward undifferentiated classes. In these the abler students are able to coast along and frequently become bored because their talents are unexercised. One wonders whether the British have faced up to the needs of the great majority and whether Americans have sufficiently considered the needs of the really able few.

4. There is one aspect of history teaching in which Americans may learn from the English. In the United States heavy teacher loads are an excuse for "objective" or "new type" tests—simply checking off the right answer. English teacher loads are just as heavy, yet English students receive unremitting training in writing, and the teachers somehow find time to correct what the students write. Many of our students receive practically no training in organizing and setting forth what they have learned. This means simply that they have been deprived of one of the essential tools of effective thinking.

With typical English reticence and caution, the authors of *The Teaching of History* are chary of claiming all virtue for the teaching of history. Any American book from a similar source and with a similar purpose would set forth more high sounding aims. Yet throughout the volume there is evidence that the most fundamental aim of American and British teachers of history is the same: to prepare students for a democratic society in a world where men can live in peace.

Unesco Seminars at Brussels and Montreal

The following group of articles gives a picture of the Unesco (United Nations Educational, Cultural, and Scientific Organization) seminars held during the summer of 1950 at Brussels and Montreal. In the first article, the author traces the development of the seminar program from its beginnings in 1947 to the present. The remainder of the articles contain brief, informal reports and recommendations prepared for *Social Education*.

UNESCO'S INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR PROGRAM

(Mary Sands, who prepared this summary of Unesco's developing seminar program, is librarian in the Lincoln Junior High School, Sacramento City Unified School District, Sacramento, Calif.)

THE use of the seminar at the international level is a relatively new development. First suggested in 1945 by the American delegates at the Unesco Preparatory Conference, which was held in London, the proposal received official authorization at the first session of the General Conference in Paris in 1946. The result of this action was the International Seminar on Education for International Understanding at Sèvres, France, in 1947.[1]

Definition and Purposes

THERE are many definitions of the seminar, but they are in essence the same. Bigelow says the seminar is a gathering at which

> . . . a number of teachers pool their knowledge and experience of certain educational problems, examine the results of research carried out by Unesco or under its impetus, suggest further subjects of study and prepare their own plan of work. The seminar, which is a true international community, is a practical example of education for international understanding.[2]

The participants are expected to bring their particular educational problems to the study center where they may find solutions and, at the same time, to offer, for the benefit of others, solutions which they have found to some of their own problems. The possibilities of such interaction are self-evident. It is hoped that the great number and variety of personal contacts experienced by the participants will result in greater professional understanding and mutual appreciation. It is expected that the experience in international living will be both a learning and a teaching process. The seminar offers members a firsthand opportunity to become better acquainted with Unesco's accomplishments and future plans of action. Constructive criticisms and suggestions for the improvement of Unesco are encouraged. Finally, participants are impressed with the desirability of sharing their seminar experiences with individuals and organizations in their own countries.[3]

Organization and Operation

THE work of organizing and operating the seminar is the responsibility of the Secretariat of Unesco.[4] In order to insure an informal atmosphere, which is a valuable feature of the workshop method, the total attendance is restricted to about seventy people. Unesco invites each member state to send a specified number of participants. The quota for the United States is usually about three.[5] Unesco pays the costs of organizing and operating the seminar. This includes provision of board and lodging, but not travel expenses.[6] It is interesting to note that, because of the shortage of soap, coffee, tea, and toothbrushes in Europe in 1947, the United States made up kits for the use of the delegates.[7]

[1] Bigelow, Karl W. "Unesco Seminars." (A report presented at the Education Conference sponsored by the United States National Commission for Unesco, Washington, D.C. April 8, 1950.) p. 3 (Mimeo.)

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 1.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 3.

[5] "Unesco Seminars." *Social Education*, 14:131; March 1950.

[6] Bigelow, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

[7] "Unesco Opens First Seminar in Paris on July 21." *National Commission News* 1:5; August 15, 1947.

In general, the setup of the 1947 seminar has determined the pattern of the other seminars. The program is flexible. Ordinarily the work is carried on in small study groups, but general meetings are called when they are needed. In the beginning, lectures were given by outside experts, but as the groups have become more skillful in the operation of the seminar technique, the need and the desire for the traditional lecture method have declined. Opportunities for recreation as well as for education are provided through field trips and excursions to places of historic, esthetic, or professional interest. Materials for a special library are collected.[8] For instance, Dr. Wilson took to the first seminar 1200 books and 1200 pamphlets donated by American publishers, and over 500 maps and films. Over 5000 items were collected and dispatched by the Unesco Relations Staff of the U. S. Department of State with the cooperation of the Division of Public Liaison.[9]

The selection of the location of the seminar demands careful consideration. It is advantageous to conduct seminars in as many different countries as possible in order that many cultures may make direct contributions in their local settings. The element of national pride has to be coped with in the selection of locale. The Secretariat has placed the seminars in large countries and in small countries in both the Eastern and Western hemispheres. Pride of leadership has been similarly respected.

A Summary View of the Seminar Program

AN EXAMINATION of the accompanying list of seminars reveals several interesting facts. Only one woman leader is mentioned. All seminars to date have been held in the summer months, except the one in India. The Education Section of Unesco has sponsored all seminars except the one "On the Role of Public and School Libraries in Adult Education," which was organized in collaboration with the International Federation of Library Associations. The Pan American Union of the Organization of American States and the governments of Brazil, India, and Uruguay have organized seminars with the assistance of Unesco. The seminars so organized have been designated as "regional" because they have considered problems peculiar to certain large geographic areas. They are also "international" since many countries are represented, but participation is restricted to delegates from member states concerned. In such cases a limited number of observers from other countries are invited, but only as a matter of courtesy. Assistance and financial aid from Unesco are usually not so great in the organization and operation of "regional" as in "international" seminars.[10]

In a few short years the Unesco seminars have developed in a number of ways. The original seminar was broadly international in purpose. Later seminars have served specific geographic regions, large and small. The tendency seems to be to continue the seminar on the international level and, at the same time, to branch out in the direction of hemispheric, continental, and regional areas. The same trend is noticeable in the study subjects of seminars. It is no longer required that seminars be confined to the broad study of international understanding. Topics have included pre-school education; adult education; illiteracy; teacher training; the teaching of history, geography, and living languages; and the improvement of textbooks.

Within countries the seminar method is being used more and more by groups that meet to study their own special educational problems. In countries where conferences have always been conducted along traditional lines, participants are learning the value of the informal give-and-take procedures typical of the seminar. National Commissions, the 100 Nongovernmental Organizations,[11] and members of internationally affiliated groups, such as the International Federation of Library Associations, are giving effective support to seminar groups. Universities and secondary schools are endeavoring to contribute to this work by giving their students training and experience in the principles of group dynamics. Potentially the students represent the personnel from which future international seminar participants may be selected. In these ways the seminar is being transplanted and reenforced.

Continuing Problems

FROM the beginning the seminar program has been faced with a number of problems, one of the most serious of which has been inadequate preparation on the part of the delegates. This fact is emphasized in the following excerpt:

> Plans were insufficiently matured and understood; participants were too hastily selected, and arrived inadequately briefed as well as unequipped with needed materials and information; they had had few opportunities to

[8] Bigelow, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

[9] *National Commission News, op. cit.*, p. 5.

[10] Bigelow, op. cit., p. 4.

[11] *Courier.* "A Hundred Groups With a Common Aim." p. 2; "100 Organizations." p. 7. June 1, 1950.

UNESCO SEMINARS: 1947-1953

1947. *International Seminar*

1. On education for international understanding. July 21 to August 30. Sèvres, France. Howard E. Wilson, U.S.A., director.

1948. *International Seminars*

2. On teaching about the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies. July 7 to August 18. Garden City, Long Island, New York. Y. R. Chao, China, director.
3. On the education and training of teachers. July 15 to August 25. Ashridge (near Berkhamstead, Herts.), England. Karl W. Bigelow, U.S.A., director.
4. On childhood education. July 21 to August 25. Podebray, Czechoslovakia. Mrs. Aase G. Skard, Norway, director.

Regional Seminar

5. On educational problems of Latin America. August 2 to September 8. Caracas, Venezuela. Guillermo Nannetti, Colombia, director.

1949. *Regional Seminars*

6. On illiteracy in the Americas. July 29 to September 3. Quitandinha, Brazil. Lourenço Filho, Brazil, director.
7. On adult education in rural areas. November 2 to December 14. Mysore, India. Pin Malakul, Thailand, director.

1950. *International Seminars*

8. On the teaching of geography to promote international understanding. July 12 to August 23. Montreal, Canada. Carlos Delgado de Carvalho, Brazil, director.
9. On the improvement of textbooks, particularly history textbooks. July 12 to August 23. Brussels, Belgium. Alfred J. Weiler, France, director.
10. On the role of public and school libraries in adult education. July 24 to August 19. Malmö, Sweden.
11. On methods and techniques of adult education. July 18 to July 29. Kreuzstein, Austria. Sven Bjorklund, Sweden, director.

Regional Seminar

12. On primary education in Latin America. Montevideo, Uruguay. Cyril O. Houle, U.S.A., director.

1951. *International Seminar*

13. On the teaching of history in primary and secondary schools. Scheduled for July 18-August 21 at Sèvres, France.

Regional Seminar

14. On material for fundamental and adult education. To be held in the Middle East.

1952. *International Seminars*

(Subject to the approval of the General Conference of Unesco at its Sixth Session.)

17. On teaching about human rights (content, methods, and materials).
18. For librarians, to be held in one of the countries of Equatorial Africa.

1953. *International Seminar*

(Subject to the approval of the General Conference of Unesco.)

19. On the teaching of living languages, and its contribution to the promotion of international understanding.

discuss their prospective seminar experience with their colleagues at home; as a result they could not feel that they were, in any functional sense, representatives of those colleagues nor was it sufficiently easy, upon their return, for them to gain a hearing.[12]

Steps have been taken to correct this situation. Since 1949, for example, Unesco has authorized seminars two years in advance in order to provide ample time for preparation.[13] In addition, increased attention has been given to the selection of personnel.

Then there is the inevitable problem of money. Some nations simply cannot afford to send delegates. "Many Member States are poor in resources and suffering from dollar and other international currency shortages. For them or for their best possible representatives to provide the needed sums has often appeared impossible."[14]

One difficulty that seems to be insuperable is the necessity of working in two languages, English and French. The use of more languages would increase the cost of operation tremendously, while the use of only one language would restrict participation immeasurably. Care in the selection of a sufficient number competent interpreters seems to be the only answer to this problem.[15]

Evaluation

IT HAS become customary to ask delegates before departure to express their opinions as to the value of the seminar which they attended. The evaluations have run the gamut of reactions, but on the whole the average opinion has been that the seminar more than justified itself. "Understanding each other's lives and thoughts was considered by many participants as one of the

[12] Bigelow, *op. cit.*, p. 7.
[13] *Ibid.*, p. 7.
[14] *Ibid.*, p. 8.
[15] *Ibid.*, p. 9.

most valuable results."[16] According to Dr. Wilson, the value of the seminar may be summed up as follows:

> Such seminars are especially valuable to Unesco because they are based upon personal contact among people from many nations and between these people and Unesco. No long-range communication, no printed pages or other instruments of mass communication can quite take the place of the kinds of experience in living and learning together, or in evolving a real group from an aggregate of strangers which characterized the Seminar at Sèvres. . . . Seminar projects are valuable, too, because of the chain of activities they set in motion.[17]

In the spring of 1950, the United States National Commission for Unesco sponsored an education conference in Washington, D.C. Certain recommendations and resolutions were forwarded to the Fifth (Florence) Session of Unesco's General Conference. In order to illustrate the thinking in regard to the need for the evaluation and improvement of the seminar, the following points are quoted from the resolutions:

> That . . . plans should be formulated and provision made for a systematic thorough-going evaluation of seminars following the completion of the first five years of experience therewith; i.e., in 1952;
>
> That the planning and conduct of seminars should be carefully co-ordinated in order to preserve and develop Unesco's accumulating experience and skill in the use of this technique, and to draw as fully as possible on all of the Organization's resources in relation to each particular seminar;
>
> That every effort should be made to ensure at each international seminar representation from each Member State.[18]

Educational Implications

SINCE the defenses of peace are built in the minds of men, the contribution of the international seminar to universal education is justifiably expected to be great. It is obligatory that schools shoulder a major share of the responsibility to aid in the free flow of information to the youth of the world that they may develop the attitudes necessary to the achievement of the ultimate ends of Unesco. It must go deeper than mere acceptance. The obligation denotes an active search for ways and means of bringing about the desired state of mind. Research by Leonard Kenworthy reemphasizes the fact that the greatest impact is the personal or face-to-face one.[19] He states that the opinions of adolescents are seldom elicited in planning programs for world-mindedness and that perhaps their ideas would be an important source from which to start. According to answers given on nation-wide questionnaires, students believe the experiences, in order of importance, which help to develop an understanding of other countries or which arouse an interest in world affairs are the following:

> Contacts with adults and peers from abroad or with persons who have traveled in other countries.
> Social studies classes; influenced by personality and interest of teachers.
> Movies; largely those seen outside of school.
> A variety of reading matter.
> World War II.
> Living and travel abroad.
> Correspondence with persons in other countries.
> Radio programs.
> Language classes
> School assembly programs.
> Current events.
> Contact with UN.
> Exchange teachers.
> Service projects; CARE, Junior Red Cross, and others.
> School affiliation programs.[20]

On the basis of such studies, curriculums are being revised to provide more adequately for learning activities which lead toward international understanding and world citizenship. The extent to which such activities are successful depends upon the interest and resourcefulness of the individual teacher. The importance of the teaching profession in a program for improving world understanding and education for peace is recognized by national teacher organizations such as the National Education Association. On the international level, WOTP (World Organization for the Teaching Profession) gives expression to the same principle in these statements:

> Efforts to improve educational opportunities for the children of the world . . . and to advance the cause of peace will fail, or at least move very slowly, without genuine international unity among teachers of all nations.
>
> The WOTP believes the teaching profession must educate all children in international understanding so they may have basic preparation for living in an interdependent world . . . the teacher . . . is the architect of the nation. . . .[21]

Teachers are not asked to be "merchants of daydreams" or to work with a "collection of

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[16] "Howard Wilson Guides Seminar in International Understanding." *National Commission News* 1:2; December 1947.

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

[18] U.S. National Commission for Unesco. "Summary Report of the Education Conference." Washington, May 1950. p. 1f. (Mimeo.)

[19] Kenworthy, Leonard S. "High School Seniors and World-Mindedness." *Progressive Education* 27:205-207; May 1950.

[20] *Ibid.*, p. 205.

[21] Stewart, David H. "Toward World Unity of Teachers." *Phi Delta Kappan* 30:91; October 1949.

symbols" in a "laboratory of illusions."[22] Their work in the drive for world unity is very real and most practical. In the words of I. James Quillen: "Sound national educational programs and real national cultures have a definite contribution to make toward world culture and international understanding which will make for peace. What we need is a common core of values as a basis for unity."[23] Unesco's international seminars, composed of teachers, can help greatly to develop this common core of values.

[22] Lucas, Martha B. "Unesco Looks Ahead," quoting Jaime Torres Bodet, Director-General of Unesco. *News Bulletin* of Institute of International Education, 25:11; December 1949.

[23] Quillen, I. James. Lecture in Seminar on International and Intergroup Education, Stanford University, July 26, 1950.

AT WORK IN BRUSSELS

(Mary G. Kelty, well-known textbook author whose home is in Washington, D.C., was chairman of the United States delegation to the 1950 seminar at Brussels.)

THE site chosen for the 1950 seminar on the improvement of textbooks, particularly history textbooks, was the beautifully-kept campus of the Free University of Brussels. One building resembling an ordinary college dormitory was reserved for living quarters for the delegates although fortunately a few summer-school students remained too. In front hung the blue flag of the United Nations, which some of the members had never seen. A second building relinquished some of its classrooms to serve as meeting places for the seminar's four work-groups, and for the exhibit of posters, charts, and textbooks prepared by the Unesco secretariat.

The living arrangements were simple but adequate; the only serious lack was a lounge in which the delegates might relax in comfortable chairs and carry on quiet conversation. The working materials, on the contrary, were woefully inadequate. It was difficult enough to form opinions about textbooks in languages that had to be translated (Japanese, Chinese, Norwegian, and so forth), but for many of the cultures represented in the seminar no textbooks at all had been assembled. This lack proved to be a serious disadvantage. What books there were, were placed in the general meeting room where reading had to compete with trial film-showings.

The Delegates and the Staff

TWENTY-FOUR member countries sent a total of 45 educators and 7 group leaders or experts to Brussels to consider the improvement of textbooks, particularly history textbooks. English and French were designated as the official languages, an arrangement which made understanding comparatively easy for members from the British Commonwealth, the United States, France, Belgium, and Switzerland. For others, however, such as the Scandinavians, the Netherlanders, and delegates from the Middle East and the Far East, the continual strain of thinking all day every day in a foreign language was extremely fatiguing. Not only did they miss some of the ideas presented, but they were handicapped in expressing their points of view. The seriousness of the language bar can hardly be over-estimated.

Nevertheless, everyone set to work with a will; even at meals and at tea time little groups struggled valiantly to communicate with one another. Gestures, signs, and peals of laughter accompanied both successes and failures. There was little tendency for the various language-groups to huddle together.

At general (plenary) sessions and in four of the five work-groups, the services of interpreters were needed throughout the six-week period. The lack of a simultaneous interpretation system was felt especially severely in the general sessions, where addresses were comparatively long and complicated. The interpreters, however, were extraordinarily capable; their ability to follow faithfully not only the subject matter but the tone of a presentation was admirable. The force of translators also gave valuable service in preparing in both official languages the working documents emanating from all the groups.

The seminar was led by a staff which had been selected by Unesco to prepare for and guide the meetings. This staff, too, was distinctly international in character. Serving as director was Alfred J. Weiler, director of the Lycée de Montgeron and assistant to the director general of secondary schools at the Ministry of National

Education (France). The administrative director was Virgil P. C. DeMaesschalk, director of the State Training College for Teachers, Blankenberghe, Belgium. Four assistants served as leaders of the work groups into which the seminar divided itself. They were Joseph Albert Lauwerys, professor of comparative education in the University of London; Haakon Vigander, professor of English, German, and history at Oslo College, Norway; George Panchaud, director of the Municipal Secondary School for Girls of Lausanne, Switzerland; F. L. W. Wood, professor of history, Victoria University College, New Zealand. In addition, Richard M. Perdew, of Unesco's Department of Education in Paris and director of its Textbook Improvement Project, joined the seminar as consultant and advisor. The social director was Madame Marcel Barzan, wife of the rector of the Free University of Brussels.

Special mention should also be made of the invaluable contributions offered by the Belgian Ministry of Public Instruction in the person of Mr. Van den Borre, its director of administration. Not only did the Ministry honor the seminar by an elaborate evening reception with a rare concert of ancient musical instruments, but it provided the specially chartered buses and tramcars for all the excursions and trips; and for many of them Mr. Van den Borre in person served as guide and director.

The administrative arrangements had been thoroughly prepared and the machinery worked smoothly. The greatest personnel need which was not supplied was for permanent consultants in child psychology—a field in which all too little has been done anyway that bears directly on the subject under investigation by the seminar.

DELEGATES and staff lived in the same building, had their meals together and sought recreation together in the typical workshop manner. Because of the shortness of time (six weeks) and because of the heterogeneous nature of the group, the freedom of choice commonly associated with workshops in this country could not be fully allowed. Certain lines of preplanning were necessary, and certain rigidities of schedule resulted.

That better international relations can spring from peoples of different nations, races, and creeds living and working together seems a reasonable expectation after watching the developments of the seminar. Deep friendships took root, for example, between Thailand and Wales, growing from mutual exchanges of ideas for bringing primary education more closely into contact with life. The United States struggled to explain the implications of keeping all the children of all the people in school; and the intellectuals of western Europe pointed out the values presented by special attention to the academically able. Each side realized that the other was presenting a fundamental need which was not being fully met at home.

Numberless examples could be given of ways in which group thinking had to be considerably altered. For instance, German observers displayed a spirit of deep understanding when, on the excursions throughout the countryside, Belgian and Dutch guides and drivers repeatedly and naturally pointed out spots where their nationals had suffered atrocities. The Anglo-Saxon women, who had for years been working to develop social sensitivity, learned with dismay, after several weeks, that they had been violating the strongest taboo of one of the ascetic Moslem members by shaking hands with him—and he had been too polite to betray his feelings.

Plenary Sessions and Work Sessions

TO PROVIDE for the interests and problems which all delegations held in common, plenary sessions were held once or twice weekly from eleven A.M. to twelve-thirty. For example, special representatives from Unesco explained parts of its program; Mr. Vigander reported on the cooperative attack on mutual textbook revision which had been so satisfactorily carried out by the five Nordic nations; M. Lousse of the University of Louvain presented a plan for "universal history" and national history. Other speakers presented other topics of interest, and at times the different work-groups met together to exchange points of view and to compare progress. Two plenary meetings were devoted to the fashioning and improvement of a questionnaire prepared under the cochairmanship of delegates Anderson of the United States and Puttemans of Belgium to secure general information about the systems in use in the various countries for producing and choosing textbooks and other teaching materials, and about the influences brought to bear upon the processes. Occasionally one delegation would arrange to show an educational motion picture that it considered an especially significant interpretation of practices.

The main concern of the summer centered around the four interest groups into which the members divided themselves. These study-groups chose different phases of the general theme: What

are the best methods for the evaluation and improvement of textbooks, and how can the diffusion and effective use of history and other textbooks which contribute to international understanding be assured? The special themes of the work groups constitute the subject-matter of the articles which follow.

The original time schedule had provided two periods a day for work-groups—9:00 to 10:30 in the morning and 4:30 to 6:00 in the afternoon. As the pressure increased, however, the groups were forced to utilize also the periods when plenary sessions were not held and the theoretically free period from 2:30 to 4:00. Few begrudged the long hours and the intense effort, for out of the work-groups evolved most of the tangible results, and out of the give-and-take of the attendant discussion grew the genuine respect of all members for the high level of competence displayed by each delegation.

A Typical Work Day

THE following example serves to illustrate the activities during the course of a work day. This schedule was followed every day except Thursday (the time set aside for excursions), late Saturday afternoons, and Sundays. A delegate rose at about seven. His room was an ordinary college dormitory room with two beds, a washbowl, and a tiny closet; bathrooms were at the end of the corridor. Breakfast was served in the commons from about 7:30 to 8:30—the continental breakfast of excellent hard rolls and butter, coffee, jam, and slices of cheese and sausage. The American members bewailed the absence of citrus fruit. The day's tasks began immediately, for one was likely to find oneself surrounded by a group who spoke nothing but French.

From 9:00 to 10:30 was a work session for the four groups, followed by a half hour for morning coffee. At that time all the delegates, the staff, the interpreters and translators, the librarians, and the clerical force crowded into the small tearoom and entered gaily into the attempt to make themselves heard above the tumult.

Eleven to 12:30 was set aside for plenary sessions on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Saturdays. On other days committee meetings, special reports, or educational films took up the time.

Lunch was served at one in the spacious well-lighted dining room, with the students a half-story below—a bountiful three- or four-course affair, with generous servings of the famous Belgian cookery. The existence of a food shortage in Europe would never have been guessed by any observer. Occasionally some distinguished guest was introduced to the group, or some delegate arriving tardily—of whom there were many.

After lunch, from 2:30 to 4:00 was supposed to be free; but the pressure of work was such that small group meetings utilized the time except when the delegates visited the local schools or viewed special films. At 4:00, a half hour was set aside for afternoon tea, a welcome respite from work but hardly less strenuous because of the language difficulty and the crowding. The frequent bursts of laughter and the buzz of conversation at tea were interrupted daily by announcements of general interest.

Four-thirty to 6:00 was the last work period, but some groups were usually in session until 6:30. At intervals an indefatigable host or hostess would give a hurried cocktail party between 6:30 and 7:00, but the manager of the dining room made such heartfelt pleas to allow the servants to leave early (9:00 o'clock!) that all tried to cooperate, especially during the period of political unrest bordering on revolution, when the tramcar schedule was most uncertain. Dinner was at 7:00—a larger-than-life replica of lunch. At 8:30 evening entertainments were planned: piano concerts, travel films, films showing the cities to be visited on the next free day. The audience was likely to melt away, however, and the delegates possessing the most endurance could be found assembled around the little tables of the sidewalk cafes until a late hour.

Recreation

THE social director, Madame Marcel Barzan, and her capable assistants had planned for the seminar on every Thursday a program of excursions to the famous cities and villages of Belgium that could not have been surpassed. With rare taste and discrimination, Mme. Barzan had selected such cathedrals as Antwerp, Ghent, Bruges, Malines, Louvain, Tournai, Hal, with accompanying concerts by world-famous organists and carilloneurs. She showed the galleries of ancient and modern art, the Archives of the Kingdom with their rare manuscripts, the Royal library, Rubens' house, Erasmus' house, the field of Waterloo. She made possible attendance at the dedication of the memorial to the American dead from the Battle of the Bulge, of which project she had been the originator. She arranged exhibitions of Flemish and Walloon folk dances, a visit to a typical casino in the luxury class, and a walk along the famous beach at Blankenberghe.

On one of the two long weekends a trip to

Holland was arranged, with visits to Rotterdam, Amsterdam, Delft, The Hague, and such glimpses of the life of the past as are still visible at Volendam.

The administrative director, M. DeMaesschalk, honored the group with a dinner at his college, a dinner the like of which few, if any, American colleges could equal. Its quality called for the ceremonial appearance of the cook at the end of the evening to receive the thanks of the guests.

This partial list is only a suggestion of the wealth of opportunities which were open to seminar members because of the efforts of the staff-opportunities which an ordinary tourist could never secure for himself. Such sharing in the inner life of a culture was one of the most rewarding of the summer's rare experiences. Another highly prized occasion was the receiving of the American delegation by the United States Ambassador to the Belgians, Mr. Robert Murphy, and a series of teas given by our cultural attaché and his staff. Such visible proof of our government's interest in Unesco's work was highly impressive to the other delegations.

This brief description attempts to give a general impression of what an international seminar is like. It hints at some of the intangible results from such a meeting. The more definite and concrete results will be outlined in the articles which follow.

A REPORT FROM GROUP I OF THE BRUSSELS SEMINAR

(Howard R. Anderson, one of the United States delegates to the 1950 seminar at Brussels, is Chief, Instructional Problems, Division of State and Local Schools, U. S. Office of Education.)

TO GIVE American teachers an idea of the problems considered by the Brussels seminar and, in effect, to invite their cooperation in doing something about them, this article lists the members of one of the seminar groups, summarizes some of its conclusions, and describes briefly a few of the projects which that group recommended for implementation by Unesco, by national commissions, or by professional groups and interested individuals.

Group I concerned itself especially with problems relating to the preparation, publication, and selection of textbooks, and to ways of improving them as instruments for furthering international understanding. The leader of the group was J. A. Lauwerys, professor of comparative education in the University of London, and its secretary was E. Stephen Owen, headmaster of an English County Primary School. Two Americans—Mary G. Kelty and Howard Anderson—also were members of the group. The other participants were: Silwa Amar, an Egyptian Ph.D. student at the University of London's Institute of Education; Elizabeth Bannan, a lecturer in English at Teachers College, Sydney, Australia; S. A. Hamdi, from Iraq, a Ph.D. student in the University of London's School of Oriental and African Studies; Shuichi Katsuda, professor of education in Gakushuin College, Tokyo; Elizabeth Lacroix, a curriculum expert from Braunschweig, Germany; Suvan Phuakchaiphaeo, a member of the Siamese Ministry of Education; and Louis van de Laar, teacher of history at the Roman Catholic Lyceum in Breda, the Netherlands.

Preliminary Survey

GROUP I assumed major responsibility for the development of a questionnaire to obtain comparable information from Unesco countries about the preparation, publication, and selection of textbooks. In order to secure information about practices in countries represented at the Brussels seminar and to get an indication of the instrument's worth as a means for gathering such information, the tentative draft of the questionnaire was completed by the participants. The following are some of the major findings of this "trial run":

1. Delegates from 16 countries stated that major responsibility for determining what is taught in the schools rested with the national ministry of education.

2. Delegates from 18 countries stated that their countries had prescribed courses of study and syllabuses. In 13 of these countries such materials for the elementary schools level were prepared by the national ministry of education.

3. Delegates from 16 and 17 countries, respectively, reported that textbooks used at the elementary and secondary school levels closely paralleled prescribed courses of study.

4. Delegates from 17 countries stated that responsibility for developing and publishing textbook manuscripts rested with private authors and independent publishers.

5. Delegates from 11 countries reported that

textbooks were selected by the school principal and his teachers; 7 that the selection was made by the national ministry of education or by the school from a list approved by the ministry.

6. Delegates from 14 countries reported that elementary school textbooks were free, i.e., paid for by the local, provincial, or national governments. Delegates from 13 countries reported that secondary school pupils must purchase their own texts.

7. Delegates from 18 countries were agreed that the trend is to place less dependence in prescribed courses of study and syllabuses and on compulsory school examinations and textbooks, and to allow teachers greater freedom in planning the work of the class.

By reading between the lines in the foregoing summary, one might conclude that there are countries in which the ministry of education in effect dictates the course of study, writes textbooks to parallel it, and distributes both to the schools. That is correct. But it should be recognized that other reasons than the desire to control what is taught in the schools contribute to this policy. In many countries the enrollment is small and the cost of a book must be kept low—forty cents or less. Consequently, the publication of textbooks tends to become a monopoly simply because it is not profitable. In general, the delegates were impressed with the large and attractive school books published in this country, and invariably they commented that the prices charged for them were out of reach in their countries.

Textbooks Can Further International Understanding

IN ITS discussion of criteria to be met by textbooks designed to further international understanding, Group I reached these conclusions:

1. Authors have the "moral and civic responsibility" to keep informed in the fields for which they prepare textbooks.

2. Textbooks "should be adapted to the experience and maturity of the pupils" for which they are written. ". . . a book is not a good textbook if it assumes that the learners will be passive absorbers of verbal formulation."

3. ". . . subjects are taught in schools . . . only when they are attuned to felt or imagined social purposes and values. The danger is that, owing to simple conservatism or to natural shortsightedness, the needs which are met may be those of fifty years ago. . . . One of the chief social needs of the day is that of promoting a higher degree of international understanding and cooperation. . . . (authors should) remove particularist and sectarian bias and set themselves aims which are . . . constructive and relevant to the paramount needs of the present stage in the development of mankind."

4. Textbooks can further international understanding by "providing simple knowledge about other national groups" and by describing "with sympathy and feeling . . . other ways of living and thinking. . . . The reactions of adult groups to one another is related to . . . the attitudes formed by children. . . ."

5. "This heritage of the colonial epoch does much to poison the social atmosphere of the Middle East and of the East. . . . (Western) textbooks (should) be planned to do justice to the religions and cultures of the East . . . and (to those) achievements which have enriched the patrimony of mankind. . . . (Eastern books) should present a true and balanced picture of the West, and especially of the West as it is now. . . ."

Discussions and Investigations Clarify Thinking

THE foregoing statements represent agreements reached after long discussion and they only hint at the nature of these discussions. In certain countries, textbooks are brief and abstract and a premium is placed on the memorization of content. When these facts are taken into account, the point of view incorporated in the second statement becomes truly significant. The Muslim delegates called attention to the fact that Western books contain little information about Muslim civilization after the Crusades and tend to describe their countries in recent times as problem areas. They objected also to the practice of picturing the Muslim as a warrior on horseback with drawn scimitar, riding to capture Christians who would be killed or compelled to accept Mohammedanism at the point of the sword. Several delegates made the point that, since most pupils in their countries do not go to high school, a major problem is to provide simple information about other lands and their peoples written at a level where elementary school children can understand it and develop a kinship for the peoples described.

Small committees analyzed various types of textbooks included in the seminar library—readers, anthologies, histories, music books, geographies, and atlases. In each case, the general con-

clusion reached was that these books could be improved as teaching instruments and also as vehicles for furthering international understanding. An interesting and perhaps not surprising discovery was that persons from that country of origin of a given textbook were much less able to discover its imperfections after a critical survey than were persons from other lands. This fact suggests that persons tend to express and accept value judgments more or less unconsciously, and it helps to explain why national prejudices are so persistent.

A REPORT FROM GROUP II OF THE BRUSSELS SEMINAR

(Ryland W. Crary, one of the United States delegates to the Brussels seminar, is an associate professor of history at Teachers College, Columbia University, in New York City.)

THE members of Group II enjoyed all the advantages and, indeed, some of the disadvantages, of a considerable diversity of educational and cultural backgrounds. At best this diversity of experience meant that problems were illuminated from many angles; at worst it meant an appreciable difficulty in communication. Language itself was not a formidable barrier to communication. Group II worked bilingually (French and English) with great patience and tolerance, and was most appreciative of the facility, wit, and economy of words of its interpreter, Norbert Berger. Occasionally, the Norwegian and Swedish members improved their own understanding by a few fast exchanges in their respective Scandinavian tongues. Not only was communication eased by the international language of good-will and mutual professional respect; there were also such instance of linguistic influence on one another's speech as to provide a philologistic field day.

Your American delegate to Group II, for instance, was occasionally assigned writing chores in the name of the group. The staff of the seminar, wrongly ascribing the authorship of certain of these documents to our good chairman, Haakon Vigander (Oslo), complimented him thus: "Vigander, we are amazed at your command of English—but occasionally you use the oddest Norwegian constructions." It happened that the corruptive influence was pedagese rather than Scandinavian—and perhaps somewhere therein a moral lies.

Reaching a Common Understanding

NO, LANGUAGE was less a barrier to understanding than was the extremely varied context of our several educational experiences. In addition to our genial and able chairman, Haakon Vigander (Norway), professor and publisher, the group was comprised thus: Jacob Ben Zion (Israel), inspector of education; André Chabloz (Switzerland), teacher, higher primary school; Ryland W. Crary (United States), associate professor, Teachers College, Columbia University; Rudolf Klein (Austria), assistant master, secondary school; Sükü Kurgan (Turkey), assistant master, secondary school; Frances Powell (New Zealand), head of the Department of History, secondary school; André Puttemans (Belgium), inspector of secondary and normal schools; Howard Percy Wolstencroft (United Kingdom), principal lecturer in educational methods and in history at Teachers' Training College. Now, though this group was happy and congenial, it soon discovered that words, even well translated, meant different things to different people. As soon as we compared actual textbooks, it became clear that even a textbook is not always a textbook in your own cultural sense. And since the major concern of our group was with the *uses* of the texts, immediately it became necessary to consider the varying national constructions to such matters as: definition of the textbook; what the textbook should contain; the role of the textbook in learning; the relation of the textbook to the general educational objectives of the nation; the relation of the teacher to the use and selection of texts.

It therefore became a first and major enterprise of Group II to improve its understanding in comparative education, and we spent the better part of our first two weeks going around the board, each delegate clarifying the institutional patterns of education in his own land in relation to the aspects listed before. Striking differences of approach among those accustomed to highly centralized systems of education and those used to patterns of local control were noticeable. It was, of course, difficult for the American delegate to make clear the enormous complexity of educational practice due to the fact that education with us is the responsibility of the several states with varying types of local control. In fact, it was

a considerable discipline on responsible expression to attempt always to state the generalization of broadest applicability, at the same time seeking to point out the ever-present exceptions to the generality. Description of hierarchical and centralized systems of education in relatively homogeneous cultures seemed to pose fewer problems.

GROUP II was conscious, along with the other groups, of diversions and interests which impinged on our work. The summer of 1950, year of apprehension, left no possibility that we could divorce ourselves from the impact of world affairs. Korea, the first great test of the new institutions of world order, was on all our minds. In the community of western Europe, with which we had a summer's brief contact, all the complex of resolution and apprehension, confusion and defined purpose, fear and courage, was clearly discernible. Each American delegate, along with many others, seemed to feel a special obligation to aid in clarifying the issues of the world struggle. No Iron Curtain delegates were present, of course (though the Russian track team arrived in the last week for the European Games); possibly their absence was a larger contribution to the clarification of issues than their presence would have been. In Brussels, the constitutional crisis came to a head with near-revolutionary intensity and kept us aware of the real world of politics in which we all function.

Even had we chosen in Group II to make our discussion chamber an Ivory Tower, the world had sought us out. In fact, our first deliberations were dominated by one in whom ordinary academic idiosyncrasies were enhanced to a marvellous degree; Hollywood, indeed, never created a grosser caricature of Academic Man. Conscious of our own inclination to error and aware of the large degree of tolerance in our profession, none hastened to cast a first stone at the one who harangued us on the Essence of the Fifth Dimension—the *Fifth*, mind you. Only on a later day did we discover that our assumed colleague had been favored by the gods with a special gift of madness and that he had been among us sans status, sans credentials, and sans sense.

Conclusions Reached by Group II

FOR the greater part, our deliberations were intelligent and sober. And after some forty, full three-hour deliberations, and considerable individual and sub-group work, the group arrived at certain conclusions and commitments.

It was quite generally agreed that in view of the purposes of Unesco that one criterion for selection of textbooks should be the quality of international understanding developed in the text. In spite of a tendency to improve textbooks and other teaching materials in this respect, it was common feeling that teachers do not ordinarily have this standard uppermost in their minds in the recommendation and selection of texts.

Despite broad differences in standards and methods of selection and preparation of texts, one common factor affecting the problem emerged. In the words of the Final Report: "Whether they be Central Ministries of Education or local school boards of community or parish, the authorities seem everywhere sensitive in the nerves which emanate from the purse. Resistance to frequent change of texts seems everywhere to occur in the name of economy. Sometimes the need for economy is real; but educators can certainly afford to educate the public in the need for texts which represent substantial improvement in methodological approach or in the adaptation of content to present needs in world understanding. Educators must insist that, in view of the amount of other expenditure of Governments and the urgent need for enlightenment, economy at the expense of enlightenment may indeed constitute a prodigious waste."

The role of the individual teacher in the selection of texts varies from a point of no participation to occasional practical personal autonomy (found probably only in smaller schools in the United States). Group II affirmed that teachers should certainly participate in the selection of texts, and that proper professional training should include the development of competence for this task.

Group II recognized that varied national approaches to educational problems condition all matters, but nevertheless placed its greatest confidence in "systems of textbook selection which encourage a free choice among competitive books freely produced. . . ." In most nations the publisher's function in the building of texts is limited only to the technical aspects of bookmaking. Indeed, some surprise and even skepticism was expressed over the not inconsiderable influence of publishers on the content of American textbooks. The basic commitment of the group in regard to the role of the publisher, however, read thus: "It is, however, evident that the free production of texts through non-official publishers under conditions of free competition is generally conducive to improvement of texts."

Group II by no means achieved common agreement as to the proper uses of texts or the function of textbooks in instruction. There were those present who would take the text as a manual to be drilled upon and learned by rote; on the other hand, there were spokesmen for the viewpoint that the textbook is definitely a limited instrument of instruction and that the preoccupation of the seminar with the improvement of texts should not obscure our perspective with reference to the larger problem of improving instruction generally. This delegate was among the latter group, and I feel that it is fair to say that although the seminar was highly challenging and rewarding, there was a certain disposition in the very nature of the subject to place our discussions in a relatively conservative educational context. This feeling appeared to be shared particularly by the delegates in Group II from Sweden and New Zealand. Therefore, if a certain ambivalence appears in such statements from the Final Report as follow, they are the better to be understood: "Any attempt at mere verbal memorising of the book, especially of long lists of mere names and dates, is to be condemned, but there must be a foundation of sound factual knowledge on which understanding and attitudes can be built. The textbook as well as the teacher should be a source of such knowledge, but it must be strictly limited in amount and really worthwhile in character before time and energy in mastering it can be justified."

YES, many conclusions of the several groups represented compromise and even caution. Language and communication barriers, as well as differing degrees of educational sophistication and conflicting educational philosophies gave rise to problems which, though confronted with utter goodwill, could only be resolved in compromise. Yet, the following major conclusion lacks neither vitality nor integrity and represents the full consensus of the group: "What then seems to be the potential of textbooks and the way they are used in determining the character of the teaching of history in schools? The answer clearly turns on where the controlling power in education lies and what that power's conception is of the goal of education and the extent to which it reposes trust in its teachers. Textbooks can be used to aid and guide the teacher and improve educational methods. They can, on the other hand, be used as a powerful weapon in the hands of an authoritarian regime for imposing a prescribed outlook on its young citizens. . . . Historical objectivity, democratic attitudes, and independent judgment cannot thrive if an authoritarian attitude pervades the schools."

THE American delegate to Group II felt no doubts as to the quality of his colleagues and the worth of the group's undertakings. It appeared that decent progress was made on the assigned task. More important, probably, for all participants was a sense of expanding of true international understanding and a growth in the practical grasp of the techniques of working on civilized tasks across the barriers of language, nations, and cultures. It seems evident that in view of the great world struggle of our time for the maintenance of free societies and the institutions of world order that not only are investments in such civilized enterprises as the Brussels Seminar justified, but should be greatly expanded as practical instruments of our stubborn hope for a better world.

A REPORT FROM GROUP III OF THE BRUSSELS SEMINAR

(Emma L. Bolzau, one of the United States delegates to the Brussels seminar, is head of the social studies department of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls, in Philadelphia.)

THIS seminar was a little United Nations in action, reflecting through the delegates the feelings and sometimes the tensions in the countries of the world which were represented. Our group of twelve members, although representing only Western culture and civilization, was no exception.

There were evident two main schools of thought: the new and the old world theories. Usually in their thinking the delegates from Austria,* Germany,* and Norway joined Australia, South Africa, Canada, and the United States; while those from France, Holland, Belgium, and sometimes Switzerland, held more to the old world, traditional theories. Our leader, who usually took a middle position, was a principal of a Swiss experimental school. But from the very beginning, no matter how much our ideas

* These delegates represented the new educational movement in their respective countries.

might differ, there was a homogeneity of feeling and respect for each other's opinions, with a keen desire to understand the other's point of view.

At times the differences were great and feelings became tense. Take, for example, our discussion of the aims of teaching history. "History," my French colleague said, "is taught for history's sake. Any practical application is purely accidental and many not come until years after graduation. Your American aim," he continued, "to teach history to enable students to understand the present, to give direct citizenship training is propagandizing for democracy and not real history teaching." The Belgian delegate added, "Chronological, factual history should be taught in all schools. But no historical events should be taught beyond the year 1939 because events happening after 1939 are too close to the historian for him to get their proper perspective. Such events, if taught, must be labelled civics or contemporary problems."

Our term "social studies" rather baffled all the other delegates. "History," they said, "must be kept separate from civics or contemporary problems. It is only in these last two courses that practical community problems and current events have a place. The latter must be taught with great care." Since very few students elect courses in civics or contemporary problems, this limits the number of pupils studying contemporary history.

The history teachers in the secondary schools, according to the French and Dutch delegates, must be specialists in their field, inspiring and teaching students through the lecture method. The textbook in this case is used by students only to check their notes or to make up work, if absent. This is quite a different use from that in the American classroom. The old world believed in passive student education, the new, in active student participation and education.

In the organization of the schools, the new and the old world also differed. In Europe there were two parallel systems, one for the academic minded, and one for the masses. In the new countries the vertical system of first to twelfth grade for all children was followed. Each system of organization has its own advantages.

And so for two weeks we continued to present our different points of view, neither side fully convincing the other, but by this time understanding what each believed. We recognized that in all countries one would find the old traditional schools and the newer type of educational institutions. So we agreed to disagree and to work on specific problems, each to be presented to the group for final consideration.

Specific Problems

THE main task assigned Group III was to study history textbooks with the idea of offering suggestions for their improvement. The group followed both a negative and a positive approach. Negatively it cited passages that (a) gave the pupil a chauvinistic idea of his country, making him feel that the world began with and centered in his own country; (b) presented statements which in themselves were correct but were beyond the comprehension of pupils of the age level for which they were written. Positively, it selected illustrations from textbooks of several countries which promoted international understanding in their young readers. It listed excellent examples of time charts, maps, graphs, cartoons, and study helps as valuable suggestions for future textbook writers in various countries. American textbooks provided most of the suggestions for attractive learning aids. England, South Africa, and the Scandinavian countries had a few books in which the students found out facts for themselves and drew their own illustrations and time charts.[1]

Several American history textbooks came in for their share of criticism also. The delegates pointed out historical inaccuracies in the labeling of pictures and in time charts. These delegates said such books were too hurriedly put together and were written by teachers rather than by historians of note.

Thus Group III suggested ways to increase the instructional value of some textbooks and to correct the content of others.

ANOTHER task set for the committee was to find ways for revising textbooks to assure better international understanding. The groups recommended:

That textbook writers and publishers in all countries be urged to give more careful attention to the fair treatment of all countries in their books.

That teachers' professional organizations in various countries, such as our National Council for the Social Studies, cooperate with similar organizations in other countries in exchanging educational literature and reviewing textbooks.

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[1] Neurath, Otto, *et al.* Edited by L. Hogben. *Visual History of Mankind Series.* Books 1-3. London: Max Parrish & Co.

Preliminary steps were taken at the seminar for the exchange of textbooks and literature between the National Council for the Social Studies and the Arbeitsgemeinschaft Deutscher Lehrerverbunde and with the Société des Professeurs d'Histoire et de Geographie de France. The plan used by the Scandinavian countries for the mutual revision of textbooks was reviewed in detail and highly recommended.[2] A committee of experts from each Nordic country reviews a textbook before it is published and recommends changes.

Group III further recommended:

That Unesco stimulate public interest in the mutual revision of textbooks by describing in an attractive pamphlet the experiments made thus far and that such a pamphlet be sent to history teachers.

That Unesco initiate textbook exchanges among all parts of the world so that each country will have a specialized textbook library for teachers and textbook writers.

That Unesco become a clearing house for the exchange of historical documents which would be useful for the production of textbooks (photographs of archives, of statistics, of museum materials).

A QUESTIONNAIRE, answered by delegates of various countries, showed a definite trend to overemphasize national history and give very little, if any, attention to world history. Therefore, Group III recommended:

That all children in *all* countries, before leaving school should have a course in world history, written from the point of view of better world understanding, placing its own country in its proper world setting.

That such a world history course should give children in European and non-European countries a knowledge of the most important facts of the history of other civilizations and their interdependence.

That in all countries the world history course should start with a study of the four great centers of population and civilization from which civilization began and later spread to the rest of the world. These centers were the Nile valley in Egypt, the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in Sumer, the valley of the Indus river in India, and the Yellow River valley in northern China.

[2] Haaken, Vigander. *Mutual Revision of History Textbooks in the Nordic Countries.* Paris: Unesco, July 15, 1950.

Group III presented a list of topics for this course for, (a) European countries, (b) for countries culturally linked with Western civilization, and (c) for non-European countries. For example, in Europe one topic might be "The Influence of the East on Europe," while in the Near East the topic might read, "The Influence of the Crusades on the Arabic World." The group also presented ways in which such a world history course could be correlated with other subjects in the curriculum.

A SUBCOMMITTEE of Group III made a special report on the "Teaching of History to Children under Ten Years of Age." The aims as set up in the report indicate both the content and methods to be used. These were:

1. Develop respect and understanding of other people and their work, starting from the immediate environment: the child in his class, the child in his community. Develop this understanding to ever greater circles, e.g., to children in other countries. Try to show them that children are similar all over the world, although their environments and living conditions are very different. Thus the child will get the necessary basis for an education that will give him respect and understanding of people of other nations even though they are very different in customs and ways of living.
2. Excite in the child a desire to know the past.
3. Show the child, little by little, that all peoples are interdependent.
4. Condition the child so that he will profit from later systematic history teaching.

This committee recommended that readers rather than systematic textbooks be used for children under ten years of age.

A SPECIAL report was made on the teaching of current events, in which it was suggested that current events taught in connection with national and world history should give students a knowledge and appreciation of the historic past, and that it should work in three ways. First, it should reveal to students a vast store of sources for obtaining information on what is happening in the world about them. Second, it should create a continuing interest in current affairs, together with a feeling of responsibility for bringing the influence of public opinion to bear upon the determination of public policies. Third, it should give students training in critical thinking—in collecting and evaluating data, in suspending judg-

ment, in analyzing proposed solutions, and in forming their own conclusions. Among other things, it suggested criteria for the selection of topics, the methods of presentation, the sources of information, and how controversial issues were to be handled in the classroom. The members of Group III, however, did not accept the report in its entirety. They did look favorably upon the teaching of current events as a part of the civics or contemporary history courses, but not as a part of or in connection with a history course. To most Europeans, the teaching of current events in school is a new idea and one which they are hesitant to accept.

These were the main recommendations of Group III. Each delegate in our small group made a definite contribution to the group thinking. Out of our group meetings grew mutual understanding and friendship. The seminar provided real international living. In our group meetings and in the informal exchange of ideas on politics, economics, and social matters, as well as on education, the purposes of Unesco were fulfilled.

A REPORT FROM GROUP IV OF THE BRUSSELS SEMINAR

(Emerson Brown, social studies editor for Harcourt Brace and Company, was nominated by the American Institute of Textbook Publishers to be one of the American delegates to the Brussels seminar.)

ROOM 85 of the lecture hall in Brussels Free University may never be marked with a plaque to commemorate the meeting of Unesco's Group IV of the seminar on textbooks and international understanding. Nevertheless, the members who met there to recommend a content for world history textbooks designed to develop international understanding felt that they were pioneering on a new frontier of international cooperation.

A roll call of the nations represented indicates the diversity of Group IV. At the head of the table Professor F. L. W. Wood, of New Zealand, presided as group leader. Seated around the table, beginning at the leader's right, were participants from Syria, France, Egypt, Belgium, Turkey, Denmark, the United States, the United Kingdom, Sweden, Germany, Mexico, Italy, and Canada, and the indispensable interpreter. Although the participants represented 14 nationalities, 11 native languages, and three world religions, all, as university professors, textbook publishers, or secondary school teachers, had a common interest in education and a zeal to help build textbooks that would encourage international understanding.

Under the skillful guidance of the leader all members of the group participated fully in the work. Although Unesco's educational staff had provided a tentative and limited agenda, the members revised it so that it would suit their purposes better. After they had agreed upon a revised agenda, each member selected a topic for study. Each member then prepared a brief report on the topic, led the group in discussing it, and prepared the revised drafts. As a rule, the group submitted the final draft to Unesco as a recommendation for future action.

These final recommendations concerning world history textbooks have been classified for the purposes of this article under four problems: How can causes of misunderstanding between peoples and nations be resolved? What should be the scope of world history textbooks? What criteria should be used for the selection of the content? How should world religions be treated?

Reducing Friction

DURING its beginning sessions Group IV agreed that "world history, properly taught, can be a powerful instrument in creating harmony and understanding among the peoples of the world." This statement implies that the reverse may also be true. Stereotypes, the participants agreed, are one cause of misunderstanding and mistrust. Participant after participant gave examples of noxious stereotypes. For instance, the participant from Denmark pointed out that the Vikings were often stereotyped as ruthless plunderers, while their great contributions to political organization were ignored. The delegate from Syria contended that history books in Christian countries place a stumbling block in the way of understanding between the peoples of the two religions by stamping Moslems as infidels and by depicting Islam as a bloodthirsty Arab brandishing a scimitar. The mild-mannered participant from Turkey made an obvious point when he

said that his people found it difficult to live down their textbook descriptions as "terrible Turks." In brief, the group agreed that one of the ways in which countries of good will could advance mutual understanding was to remove stereotypes from textbooks.

Group IV also discussed controversial topics, such as the causes of the Mexican War, as sources of international friction. Even though, as the group pointed out, a historian of one nation tries to be completely fair and objective about past disputes with other nations, he often fails because he does not have all the facts or because he may be unaware of other points of view. Even in the kindred Scandinavian countries, as a report on textbook revision in Nordic countries showed, it is necessary for the historians to exchange textbooks and to hold conferences to reconcile differing points of view. If such steps are necessary to develop better understanding among countries of a common culture, they are all the more necessary, the group felt, when the countries involved represent different peoples, languages, and cultures.

As a means of removing stereotypes and resolving frictional topics, the group discussed the advisability of regional conferences of historians and teachers and the exchange of textbooks between organizations of teachers for mutual revision. The Danish and Swedish participants described the mutual revision of history textbooks in the Nordic countries. The Mexican participant described the successful outcome of the conference between American and Mexican historians held to iron out differences of interpretation. The Canadian and American participants described the influence the report of the Canadian-American Committees had already exerted on textbooks in both countries. During these discussions several participants pointed out that such studies were concerned with arriving at fair and accurate treatment of controversial issues and not at obscuring the facts for the sake of harmony.

To facilitate the removal of noxious stereotypes and to resolve controversial issues, Group IV recommended that Unesco, upon request, arrange for competent authorities in one country to examine textbooks published in another country. They further recommended that Unesco assist interested groups in holding international or regional conferences to consider the treatment of historical topics past or present that cause friction between peoples and nations. In the same resolution they urged Unesco to ask its National Commissions, professional organizations of teachers, and editors of professional magazines to be on the lookout for controversial issues that foment international misunderstanding and to take the initiative in suggesting conferences to deal with them.

Underlying the recommendation is the implication that the preparation of world history textbooks to advance international understanding can be accomplished only through international cooperation. Furthermore, such a program cannot achieve its full benefits until all countries are willing to participate in it.

The World Perspective

FROM the outset Group IV faced the problem of the historical units that should be included in a world history. The organization of world history textbooks into ancient, medieval, and modern periods revealed their concentration on the history of Western civilization. In such textbooks the history of nations outside of Europe is usually included only when it impinges on western Europe.

The Syrian participants pointed out the incongruity of a "dark ages" in a "world history textbook." While Europe groped in the "Dark Ages," they explained, Arabic civilization blazed with light. "Surely," they said, " 'Dark Ages' does not mark a period in 'world history.' " Furthermore, they went on to say, "world histories," because they are preoccupied with Western civilization, fail to give credit to the great achievements of Arabic civilization. The Turkish participant pointed out that textbooks neglected the achievements and contributions of Byzantine civilization to world history.

But the participants from the Middle East were not the only ones to question the scope of textbooks taught as world history. The participant from Mexico deplored the absence in textbooks of the contributions of the New World to the Old. The participant from the United States felt that the young people of other nations could not understand his country without knowing something of the American achievement in providing public high schools for all, in raising levels of living generally, in promoting the arts through education, and in other fields of social and cultural achievement. Had Group IV included participants from the Far East and from India, they too would have shown the value of having their history included in textbooks designed to develop international understanding.

But recognition of the need to broaden the content of world history textbooks beyond west-

ern Europe was not limited to non-Europeans. Several participants from European nations commented on the need to broaden their world history textbooks to include the history of the Middle and Far East and of the New World.

In much the same way as the discovery of America stretched the minds of Europeans, the discussion of world-wide history textbooks stretched the minds of the participants. At the same time, they faced the problem of finding suitable historical units. "Satisfactory textbooks on world history," they agreed, "cannot be constructed by taking a single nation's history as a basis and studying other nations' histories primarily as they impinge upon that single national history."

In the final report, Group IV recommended "that world history be centered mainly on the study of great civilizations." The textbooks, the report went on to say, "should trace the beginning and the spread of each civilization and should describe its main characteristics." They should also "bring to light the ties between the great civilizations," reveal their interaction, and emphasize the evergrowing unity of the world.

The recommendation implies that families of nations can be grouped together into a large unit called a civilization. The recommendation also recognizes that the ties between nations and people are so close in today's world that world history textbooks to advance international understanding must be world-wide in scope.

Limiting the Content

BY RECOMMENDING history textbooks world-wide in scope, Group IV was brought face-to-face with the necessity of selecting topics in the order of their highest priority. As Group IV wrote in the final report, "the history of even a small geographical unit is the result of a screening process in which the author sifts out and presents the essential facts. By the same process, the authors of world history textbooks can select basic and skeletal topics, these to be treated impartially and without national, religious, racial, or ideological prejudice."

The need to select "basic and skeletal topics" forced the participants to seek some guiding principles for the selection of content. One of the participants suggested a more positive approach to international understanding than that of merely removing chauvinistic clichés from history books and increasing their scope. In his opinion, writers and historians should seek the common characteristics of all peoples, should search for the common denominators of the fractional parts of the world as a basis for selection and organization of world history. By emphasizing the common characteristics of nations and peoples, world history, he argued, would help to bind the nations together.

In the light of the proposal, Group IV recommended that world history textbooks emphasize the great achievements of mankind in forming religions, in developing political organizations, in inventing writing, in making scientific discoveries, in learning to use the physical environment, in making technological advances, and in expressing their hopes and ideals in the fine arts. World history textbooks too, the recommendation went on to say, might well give more attention to the heroes of mankind: the lawgivers, the religious leaders, the humanitarians, the scientists, the inventors, the composers, the teachers, the prophets, and the artists. In making the recommendation, Group IV said that the emphasis on the achievements of mankind and on world personalities supplemented and did not deny the sound teaching of national history.

Group IV asked Unesco to take the lead in promoting the objectives set forth for the selection of content. "It considers," the recommendation reads, "that there is a body of topics in world history which should be studied in all countries. It suggests that Unesco should endeavor to define such essential topics, whether as a by-product of the projected universal history, or by regional and ultimately world conferences; and it notes that separate lists for different age-levels, e.g., 14-15 and 16-18, are needed.

Treatment of the World's Religions

DURING the closing days of the seminar, Group IV discussed the advisability of including the major religions in world history textbooks. The question that concerned the group the most was not whether they should be included but the manner of presentation. In the end the group agreed on the following recommendation:

"Group IV believes that the history of civilization should establish a just balance between the material and spiritual aspects of civilization. The great religions must be given an important place in world history.

"The Group recommends in accordance with the fundamental aims of Unesco, that all religions should be treated in good faith and with

respect and understanding. Only on the basis of religious freedom and tolerance can there be any progress to world unity."

Substantial Progress

WHEN the seminar came to a close, there were many topics Group IV had not fully discussed. Nevertheless, the members of the Group felt that they had made substantial progress in setting up some criteria to guide the preparation of textbooks to build international understanding. Not least among their accomplishments was their agreement on major questions involving ideals and principles. In those countries where the teachers, the public officials, and the citizens wish to advance international understanding through education, and especially through the study of world history, the report of Group IV of the Brussels seminar marks a beginning and points the way.

AT WORK WITH THE GEOGRAPHY SEMINAR IN MONTREAL

(Zoe A. Thralls, chairman of the United States delegation to the Montreal seminar, is a professor of geography at the University of Pittsburgh.)

THE Teaching of Geography as a Means for Developing International Understanding" was the theme of the Unesco seminar-workship held July 12–August 23 at Macdonald College of McGill University, near Montreal, Canada. There were 37 participants from 23 countries—Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Denmark, Egypt, France, Germany, Greece, Iraq, Israel, Italy, Japan, Norway, New Zealand, the Netherlands, the Philippines, South Africa, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and the United States. In addition to the participants, several visitors or observers came at various times and made worthwhile contributions to the groups.

Organization

THE director of the seminar was Carlos Delgado de Carvalho, professor of geography at the University of Rio de Janeiro. Five group leaders assisted him. The seminar was divided into two separate series of workshops—ten in all. Each group leader directed two workshops, one in each series. The group leaders were: Cemal Arif Alagoz (Turkey), Robert Ficheux (France), Gwendoline Howells (United Kingdom), Frank Sorenson (U.S.A.), Omer Tulippe (Belgium), and Gerard Pfulg (Switzerland). Mr. Pfulg took over Mr. Ficheux's group when the latter became ill and had to leave. The participants selected the groups in which they wished to work. This mixed the participants and resulted in wider acquaintance and also a more extensive exchange of ideas.

All the participants were trained geographers from universities, colleges, secondary, and elementary schools; thus all levels of geographic instruction were represented. Discussions were in both French and English. All except four of the participants understood English even if they did not speak it. Often, in the midst of hot discussions, the poor interpreter, to his chagrin and bewilderment, was forgotten. Then the English and the French became so entangled that the disputants would collapse with laughter. The interpreter would take over and an understanding would be quickly reached.

In most of the groups there was free discussion and exchange of opinions. No one seemed to hesitate to express his ideas. The relatively small and informal groups fostered exchange of ideas and opinions. On the whole, the participants were easy to talk to, friendly, and very likeable, even when there were language difficulties.

The administrative work of the seminar was directed by Leon Lortie (University of Montreal, Canada). He was assisted by Pierre Camü of the Geographical Branch of the Department of Mines and Technical Surveys. Unesco was represented by Jean Guiton, the Deputy Director of Education, Benoit Brouillette, Head of Educational Seminars, and Georges Pichon of the Bureau of the Comptroller. Assisting the administrative staff were six translators and six secretaries. The pleasant atmosphere and the smooth functioning of the seminar was due, in a large measure, to the excellent administrative staff.

The French-Canadian secretaries were attractive young ladies. They were not only excellent typists but also added to the social affairs with their singing. They belonged to the secretarial staff of the Canadian Parliament and were loaned to the seminar for the six weeks.

During the first two weeks of the seminar, plenary sessions were scheduled each morning from 8:30 to 10:00 A.M. At these sessions special addresses were given, such as the Director's opening speech outlining the work of the seminar and

Jean Guiton's address on the "Purpose and Nature of Unesco's Seminars." Representatives of the Canadian government and other visitors addressed the seminar briefly at various times. However, most of the plenary sessions were devoted to reports from the ten workshops. The workshop leaders presided in turn and the secretary of each group read the conclusions or summary of the group's work. After the secretary's report, questions and discussion followed.

During the third and fourth weeks, the daily plenary sessions were discontinued due, in part, to pressure of work in the groups. Also the seminar, as a whole, felt that the discussions in the plenary sessions tended to be monopolized by a few, which, of course, is frequently the case in all meetings. During the last week, the plenary sessions were resumed with summary reports from each group.

Social Life

THE social activities of the seminar were in charge of Mrs. Patricia Stevenson (Geographical Branch of the Department of Mines and Technical Surveys) and Mrs. Irene Baird (Department of Resources and Development). On one or two evenings a week simple social gatherings were held in the faculty club house of Macdonald College. The entertainment was usually provided by members of the seminar and the administrative staff and consisted of national songs, dances, and skits. There is nothing equal to the American square dance to break down inhibitions. Under the leadership of Jim Hamilton (Macdonald College faculty) the European and Asiatic members of the seminar were introduced to the square dance. They gave some new turns and twists to the dance which added to the hilarity. One evening the two New Zealanders gave a realistic Maori war dance. Another delegate, representing the UN, tried to bring peace between the warriors with disastrous results to his trousers. Danish folk songs, Japanese love songs, stories from Bagdad, pantomime by the English, music by Canadian groups, were some of the highlights of the informal social evenings, which contributed much to the development of a good spirit among the participants. They also provided a means for the administrative staff and the delegates to become acquainted.

Mr. Lortie, with the aid of the Canadian government and other agencies, managed many field trips for the members of the Seminar. No geography seminar would be complete without field trips. Besides, only a few of the European and Asiatic delegates had ever been in Canada and seeing as much of the land and people as possible would help them to be better teachers.

One Sunday was spent in the Laurentians. A Saturday was devoted to a visit by boat to Montreal harbor. The unique geography summer school of McGill at Stanstead had to be visited. Students and faculty united in showing the visitors the school and nearby countryside. One weekend was taken for a strenuous trip to Niagara Falls with a stop on the way to visit a geography classroom in Toronto. The delegates felt that they could not be in Canada and fail to see Niagara. Quebec was another attraction and was managed in a weekend. The Canadian government invited the seminar to Ottawa for a day. The members visited the beautiful Canadian Parliament building, had a birdseye view of the city from the tower, enjoyed a few hours' relaxation with luncheon at the country club where officials greetings were extended. After luncheon, a quick trip through the city, a visit to the Geographic Branch of the Department of Mines and Technical Surveys, a walk in the gardens of the governor-general, and finally a late tea at Mrs. Stevenson's completed an enjoyable day. Canadians are certainly delightful hosts.

Many of the delegates were very anxious to visit Washington, New York, and Lake Success to see the United Nations at work. Such a trip seemed impossible as none of the overseas delegates had any extra dollars to spend. The problem was taken up with officials of the National Education Association and means were found to make the trip possible at the close of the seminar.

Expenses for the five-day trip were paid by the National Education Association through a grant from the Overseas Teacher-Relief Fund. This fund had been established by teachers throughout the United States for the purpose of providing help to teachers of other countries. From the standpoint of international understanding, this trip was the climax of the seminar for the overseas delegates.

Numerous appreciative comments were made by the participants at the time and in letters received later. They particularly liked the fact that the trip was a gift from the teachers of the United States, planned and executed by the NEA, although many agencies took part.

As one delegate wrote commenting on the visit to the Department of State, "In the afternoon we had a fine 'briefing' of the work of the federal department and foreign relations, including its relation to I.T.U. and a brief account of

the educational work, institutes, and libraries of information in foreign countries. All speakers seemed to have correlated their talks, so that we received a clear account of the federal government's interest in world understanding and its feeling of responsibility for able leadership. It was, indeed, a very worthwhile experience."

The United States delegates feel that they know twenty-two lands and peoples better for their experience of working together for six weeks. They wish that many, many more Americans could have the same experience.

A REPORT FROM THE MONTREAL SEMINAR

(Frank E. Sorenson, a member of the staff of the Montreal seminar, is director of in-service education centers at the University of Nebraska.)

THE greatest experience which the writer has ever had as a geography teacher came in the summer of 1950. This was probably true for the more than fifty other geography teachers who were privileged to participate in the Unesco seminar on the teaching of geography for international understanding. This seminar experience was rich in opportunities to examine the uniqueness of geography and the many ways in which this subject can contribute to international understanding. But even more important was the two months' experience in international living. In that brief summer period, strangers became friends and friends became sincere coworkers.

Issues Studied by the Staff

IT WAS evident at the outset that there were two points of view regarding the responsibility of the seminar. The first expressed with considerable feeling by the French leader, pictured geography as a subject through which students search for the truth about man and his environment. The assumption of those supporting this point of view was: teach geography well and international understanding will result. A splendid syllabus on the teaching of geography was submitted by the French delegation.

The second point of view championed by others (including the writer) insisted that geography must have a well-defined emphasis if it is to make its maximum contribution to international understanding. In other words, the teacher would select from the vast body of subject matter the content that would contribute most directly to the desired goal. The method of teaching, moreover, would provide for a study of the problems and issues upon which international understanding hinges.

A second difference in point of view was also evident at the outset. Some would not hold geography responsible for any direct teaching about the United Nations and its work. In contrast, others insisted that many of the problems and issues before the United Nations were suitable for study in a geography classroom.

Interest in the United Nations

EXCERPTS from a few Christmas letters received from seminar participants tell of their activities at home as a follow-up of the seminar experience. These comments illustrate the acquired interest in the United Nations and its work.

Japan—I made many trips in Japan to make speeches on the Unesco International Educational Seminar at Macdonald College and the work of the United Nations and Unesco to increase the Japanese teachers' interest about them. The result was, I think, successful because in the teaching programs of every prefecture of Japan they are developing and enlarging the contents about the United Nations and Unesco.

Turkey—The Turkish National Committee of the Unesco has authorized me to arrange a seminar next summer in Ankara for Turkish geography teachers.

Australia—As I visit each school I put before senior pupils and meetings of members of the staff the ideas we discussed. I generally give a word picture of the United Nations, the new building founded on the living rock and the delight of seeing so many national groups at Lake Success, and I try to tell them what the United Nations is trying to accomplish in the realm of world understanding. I cannot tell you what a wonderful experience it was to travel to Washington and to Lake Success. Especially at this perplexing time I am glad to be able to talk of my experience in the United States and of the sensitive men and women leaders I was privileged to meet.

Achievements of the Seminar

IT IS not the purpose of the writer to outline in detail the pattern of work or the uniqueness of the Macdonald College Seminar. This is the responsibility of Professor Neville Scarfe of the University of London. Professor Scarfe is building a comprehensive report on the observations which he made at Macdonald College and on the extensive reports of the ten workshop groups. This very important document will undoubtedly be published by Unesco this spring.

It will be "must" reading for geography teachers in elementary and secondary schools, college teachers of geography and curriculum specialists. Educational publishers should find this report helpful.

Teaching Geography to Pupils 9-12 Years of Age

A BRIEF report on the work of one group, however, is included as a sample. This is the story as it was told to the National Council of Geography Teachers by Marian Seibel of the Buffalo, New York, Schools. Miss Seibel was one of the four United States delegates to the seminar.

"The second group, of which I was a member, dealt with the teaching of geography to pupils 9-12 years old. Participants representing seven different countries worked together under the leadership of Frank Sorenson of the United States. Among the members of this group were some who had had little contact with children.

"Today, the child development concept pervades the literature about teaching. To consider content without the child would be working at cross purposes. The group therefore spent several days with 9-12 year-old children of Ste. Anne de Bellevue in an attempt to discover what these children knew about their community, especially its geography, and to find out as much as possible about these children's interests and needs.

"On the basis of these actual experiences with children, and after studying a film and available references, a report was prepared summarizing the characteristics and interests of 9-12 year-olds. From this report a committee drew up a list of principles that should be applied to teaching geography to such pupils, especially in relation to the development of international understanding. The following is a much abbreviated summary of these principles:

"Children of this age are essentially explorers, filled with curiosity about the world around them, and eager for information about distant lands and peoples. There is need to find out how much the child knows about his locality and the world at large and build on that knowledge and interest.

"Studies of the work of man in different environments, of people's food, clothing, shelter, transportation, and communication are the concern of children of this age. Children can be led into a meaningful study of the world's lands and peoples by starting with experiences that can be provided in the local environment.

"The world today is full of problems, but it may be wise at this stage not to stress too heavily man's difficulties and anxieties. For children who have not yet developed full reasoning and critical powers, and who are still immature and dependent on adults, it is psychologically advisable to emphasize the more positive and promising aspects of man's achievement in this world. Then, with this as a background, children may learn, for example, that many of the world's peoples suffer from hunger, but that adults are making an attempt to better such conditions. It is important to avoid educating through fear. We must try to give the young child confidence in man's ability to deal with world problems.

"Children of this age are active workers. Moreover, if accorded freedom of expression with sympathetic support from adults, children will do a great deal of creative work. The wise geography teacher makes ample provision for practical ways of learning—observing and recording facts in the locality, making collections, studying maps, graphs, books, making charts, models, scrapbooks, giving reports, writing stories, drawing pictures. The teacher makes use of the child's interest in films, pictures, and radio in helping to build proper concepts about the wider world beyond the child's immediate experience.

"Boys and girls of this age tend to form small groups or gangs. The skillful teacher will make use of this group tendency in lessons and give children a chance to direct, organize, and evaluate their work in a cooperative manner. Here may be laid important foundations for international understanding.

"Among the topics studied by our group were:

1. What is being done to promote international understanding in various countries at the present time?

2. What attitudes leading toward international understanding can be developed in children ages 9-12?

3. How can these wholesome attitudes be developed and strengthened?

"The group listed ways of developing in children desirable attitudes toward international understanding. The following are illustrative:

1. Planning learning situations in which children are taught to respect their parents, teachers, ministers, and others.

2. Creating activities in which children gain experience in living and working together harmoniously.

3. Providing trips into a community so that children can come to appreciate the work of its

various members and the influences which its environment places upon them.

4. Inviting persons who have traveled to tell the children of their experiences with other people and of their understanding of other communities.

5. Sponsoring school and community exhibits in an effort to develop an intense interest in and a keen appreciation of other lands and peoples.

6. Providing up-to-date learning ideas including textbooks, supplementary printed materials, wall maps and charts, globes, films, and flat pictures, all of which must help children gain correct mental pictures of the world's lands and its peoples.

7. Arranging for programs which give children the opportunity to learn of the clothing, songs, and dances of children in other lands.

"In conclusion, inasmuch as children develop enduring attitudes toward other peoples, educational policy-makers in all nations need to strengthen the elementary school program as a whole and particularly the teaching of geography in that program. As the improved elementary school program emerges, it should be evident throughout the development of good will among all men is one of its essential objectives."

In Conclusion

The Unesco seminar on the teaching of geography for international understanding was more than an experiment. Its success was guaranteed by the use of techniques discovered in previous seminars. These techniques were outlined for staff and participants by Jean Guiton, then Unesco director of education.

Much credit goes to the participants for the splendid attitude which they displayed toward the problem under consideration. Without exception, participants were anxious to discover better ways of teaching geography for international understanding.

One further conclusion should be stated. Even though the people in one country may understand the people in another, there is still no guarantee that such understanding will be used for the benefit of mankind. The way in which the information is to be used depends on one's sense of moral and spiritual values. This was the decision of the geography teachers.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE UNESCO SEMINAR PROGRAMS

(Ruth McMurry, program analyst of the Unesco Relations Staff, Department of State, and Merrill F. Hartshorn, executive secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies, which is a member organization of the U. S. National Commission for Unesco, prepared this summary of the work done to implement the Unesco Seminar Program.)

THE Executive Board of Unesco, in its Draft Program for 1952, states, "Member States are invited to make the fullest use of the work of these [Unesco] seminars and to follow them up wherever possible with regional or national seminars on the same subject." Thus official encouragement is given to the idea that each country go ahead with the task of implementing the work of the Unesco seminars.

In fact, the results of a Unesco seminar may be evaluated by the action taken within Member States to follow up its work. This follow-up work appropriately utilizes a variety of methods. Some of the activities that have been carried out, and others now being definitely planned, are described below. Space limitations prohibit a full treatment or a complete listing of all activities, but those mentioned indicate that the program of implementation is moving forward. However, much remains to be done and all teachers are urged to acquaint themselves with the work of this program.

Some of the activities initiated to implement the work of the seminars include: (a) National Commission publications; (b) special issue of *Social Education;* (c) a national seminar preparatory to the international seminars; (d) regional seminars to be held in the United States this spring; (e) talks and articles by the United States participants in the international seminars: (f) consideration of the work of the seminars in the programs of professional organizations; and (g) advising and encouraging Unesco headquarters in Paris to continue with the work of international seminars on education and the publication of materials based on the seminars. These activities are carried on with the encouragement, cooperation, and support of the U. S. National Commission for Unesco.

National Commissions

THE National Commissions for Unesco in each Member State encourages and cooperates in different kinds of activities to imple-

ment the work of the international seminars. Here in the United States our National Commission for Unesco, through its advisory panels and committees, has done several things to implement the work of the seminars in the field of textbook improvement.[1] For example, the U. S. National Commission for Unesco has published a report, prepared for it under the sponsorship of the American Council on Education, entitled *The Treatment of International Agencies in School History Textbooks in the United States.*[2] The American Council on Education has also prepared for the U. S. National Commission a report entitled *Textbook Improvement and International Understanding.*[3]

Special Issue of *Social Education*

THIS issue of *Social Education* has been prepared in order to share some of the findings and the experiences of the United States delegates with its readers. It is hoped that the material in this issue will stimulate teachers and local groups to a further study of the work of the seminars. Local councils may wish to utilize the services of some of the U. S. delegates in their meetings and thereby gain a more intimate contact with the work.[4]

National Seminars

TO PREPARE for the two 1950 Unesco seminars on the improvement of textbooks, particularly history textbooks, and on the teaching of geography as a means of developing international understanding, a national Unesco seminar on the social studies was held at Robert Allerton Park of the University of Illinois under the general chairmanship of William Van Til of the University of Illinois. The three-day meeting, May 5-7, 1950, was jointly sponsored by the U. S. National Commission for Unesco and the University of Illinois, with the cooperation of the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Council of Geography Teachers.

Forty persons from throughout the United States, representing high level leadership in social education, geography education, and agencies of international cooperation met together for three major purposes:

1. To help prepare the United States representatives for participation in the international seminars;

2. To stimulate further thought among American educational leaders on the teaching of geography for international understanding, and the improvement of textbooks, particularly history textbooks;

3. To plan U. S. regional seminars for 1951 to disseminate the findings of the international seminars.

1951 Regional Seminars

AS THIS article is being prepared, five and possibly six U. S. regional seminars are being planned for this spring.[5] The sub-committee on the improvement of teaching materials of the U. S. National Commission's Panel on Education for International Understanding is developing documentation for the regional seminars from Unesco seminar papers. They are also working with the sponsors of the regional seminars in an advisory capacity to assist in plans for the seminars. In this work organizations and institutions in the region assume primary responsibility for the conduct of the seminars. Each of the regional seminars will concern itself with both the improvement of history textbooks and instruction and with the teaching of geography as a means of developing international understanding. Plans call for the presence of at least one delegate from both the history and the geography Unesco seminars, as well as other staff members and consultants close to the work of Unesco, at each of the regional seminars.

Regional seminars now being scheduled are:

1. The University of Maryland, College Park, Md., with the cooperation of the National Council for the Social Studies, to sponsor a seminar for teachers of history and geography in the East.

[1] Teachers wishing information about different aspects of the education program of Unesco should write to the Unesco Relations Staff, Department of State, Washington 25.

[2] For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25. Price 50 cents.

[3] Quillen, I. James. *Textbook Improvement and International Understanding. Washington:* American Council on Education, 1948.

[4] U. S. delegates to the Montreal seminar were: Thomas F. Barton, University of Indiana; Sister Mary Ursula Hauk, Johnstown (Pa.) Catholic High School; Marian Seibel, Public School No. 52, Buffalo, N.Y.; Zoe A. Thralls, University of Pittsburgh, chairman of the delegation; Frank Sorenson, University of Nebraska.

U. S. delegates to the Brussels seminar were: Howard R. Anderson, U.S. Office of Education; Emma L. Bolzau, South Philadelphia High School for Girls; Emerson Brown, Harcourt, Brace and Company; Ryland W. Crary, Teachers College, Columbia University; and Mary G. Kelty, Washington, D.C., chairman of the delegation.

[5] For additional information about the regional seminars write to the Unesco Relations Staff, Department of State, Washington 25.

2. George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., to sponsor a comparable seminar for teachers in the South.

3. The University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb., to sponsor a seminar for teachers of the Middle West.

4. The Social Science Foundation of the University of Denver, for its March conference commemorating the 25th anniversary of the Foundation, incorporated into its program activities which will further the Unesco program for the teaching of history and geography.

5. The Unesco Committee for Southern California, with the cooperation of Hugh Tiner, Pepperdine College, and A. J. Stoddard, a member of the U. S. National Commission, is planning to sponsor a seminar for history and geography teachers of the West Coast.

6. Alabama College for Women, Montevallo, Ala., has expressed an interest in sponsoring a comparable seminar for teachers of history and geography in the Southeast.

Contributions of U. S. Delegates

ALL the United States participants in the Unesco seminars have given generously of their time and effort to bring to teachers, textbook writers, and editors, in ever-widening circles, the best of the findings from the seminars. They have written articles for many educational journals, have appeared as speakers before national, state, and local teachers organizations, and before civic groups. They have answered letters from American teachers interested in the work of the seminars. In preparing materials for national, state, or local distribution, they have drawn on their seminar experiences and thereby enriched such publications. Further, the United States participants have kept up contacts with delegates from other countries who participated in the seminars and have answered numerous requests from them for materials and information about educational practices and materials in the United States.

National Professional Meetings

THE work of the Unesco seminar is further shared and carried forward by reports to teachers on the programs of national professional organizations.

At its 30th annual meeting, held in Minneapolis November 23-25, 1950, the National Council for the Social Studies, featured two meetings dealing with the work of the seminars and efforts at textbook improvement. The opening general session presented a panel discussion on the topic, "Unesco Copes with the World-Wide Problem of Teaching Materials." The panel was composed of the United States delegates to the Unesco International seminar held at Brussels, Belgium. At a luncheon meeting, the U. S. study, *The Treatment of International Agencies in School History Textbooks of the United States,*[6] was discussed.

At the opening session of the annual meeting of the 36th year of the National Council of Geography Teachers in Chicago, a panel composed of the United States delegates to the seminar held in Montreal, Canada, discussed "Unesco's International Seminar on the Teaching of Geography as a Means of Developing International Understanding."

Unesco Headquarters

TO AID and stimulate the follow-through activities of the Member States, Unesco headquarters in Paris has certain responsibilities to discharge. Only three such responsibilities will be touched on here: (a) the publication of reports and materials based on findings and recommendations that can be used by Member States in their implementation activities; (b) the development of a coordinated program whereby Unesco itself follows through with the work they have developed in the field of improving teaching materials; and (c) the stimulation and coordination of bilateral and multilateral studies of teaching materials and assisting where desirable in the development of such studies.

Unesco has published, under point one, *A Handbook for the Improvement of Textbooks and Teaching Materials as Aids to International Understanding.*[7] This is a comprehensive handbook that devotes considerable space to the historical background of earlier efforts to improve teaching materials and suggests a program for Unesco.

On the basis of an analysis and revision of the various reports and working papers of the two seminars, Unesco is planning to publish several pamphlets which should be of international interest. In the series of pamphlets entitled "Unesco and Its Program," short accounts of the two seminars are to be published early in 1951.

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[6] McClure, Dorothy. *The Treatment of International Agencies in School History Textbooks in the United States.* Washington: U. S. National Commission for Unesco.

[7] Unesco. *A Handbook for the Improvement of Textbooks and Teaching Materials as Aids to International Understanding.* Paris: Unesco, 1949.

N. V. Scarfe, Head of the Geography Department, Institute of Education, University of London, has been commissioned to write a general work on the teaching of geography in relation to the development of international understanding. Based on the pamphlet *Some Suggestions on the Teaching of Geography,* prepared by a group of experts for the geography seminar, and on the work of the seminar, this work should also appear early in 1951.

On the second point, in the coordinated program for the improvement of teaching and teaching materials which Unesco and the Member States have been developing during the past three years, the international seminar on the teaching of history as a means of developing international understanding in primary and secondary schools, which will take place in the summer of 1951, holds a very important place. In Sèvres, France, where the first of the Unesco seminars on education for international understanding was held in 1947, this seminar on the teaching of history will continue the seminar program, utilizing the results of the previous seminars, especially those held in 1950 on the teaching of geography and on the improvement of textbooks.

The seminar on the teaching of history, which will be held July 18 to August 21, will include from 70 to 80 participants, including primary and elementary school teachers; secondary school teachers; teacher-training college teachers; and officials in charge of the preparation and application of curricula in primary, elementary, and secondary schools. The United States has been invited to send three persons.

Following this seminar, it is planned to extend, through additional regional conferences or seminars and through other types of activities, to an ever-widening circle of teachers, editors, textbooks writers, and curriculum experts, those results of the Unesco program for the improvement of teaching materials which give real promise of promoting international understanding through the teaching of history and geography. Unesco plans to widen this program to include other fields, such as modern languages and literature.

Under the third point, it can be reported that there are several active, bilateral and multilateral agreements and studies of teaching materials. These are being closely followed by Unesco, with assistance given where it is desired. The work of Unesco itself is carried forward by such studies, which should be further encouraged and helped. The international seminars that have been held thus far have given impetus to this work, thereby implementing the program of Unesco.

In Conclusion

THIS survey of the work being done to implement the work of Unesco makes no attempt to catalogue all such activities. Rather the object has been, within space limitations, to indicate the nature of some of the activities best known to the writers with the hope that it will serve not merely to record the activities described, but, more important, that more individuals will be encouraged to engage in such activities themselves, become better acquainted with the work of Unesco, and thereby further extend the work of Unesco toward its ultimate goal of international understanding and world peace.

THE FAR EAST IN WORLD HISTORY

(Continued from page 162)

thermore, the titles of the texts, limited as they are primarily to Europe, are somewhat misleading when they declare themselves to be about *Today's World,* or *This Our World,* or *Man's Great Adventure.*

DURING the last war, we were forced to concentrate our efforts on Europe first. Since the end of the war, our government has continued to concentrate our efforts on Europe first. But the implication has not been lost on the people of Asia. Since our resources have been limited, it is possible that our government could not have done otherwise. But the resources of scholarship and intellectual ingenuity need not be confined to Europe and the West. If we are to carry out the resolution adopted by the National Council at its 1949 meeting in Baltimore, to emphasize "the need for an educational program in our schools which will lead our people to understand the conditions and problems of all significant areas of the world,"[20] then we must agree with the authors of one of the texts that world history is concerned with the development of all peoples and civilizations, east and west, north and south, throughout the centuries, and that "it is essential to understand the history and cultures of the Far East, Australasia and the Americas as well as European development."[21]

[20] *Social Education* 14:32; January 1950.

[21] Bining, Howland, and Shryock, *op. cit.,* p. vii.

Notes and News

NCSS Curriculum Committee

The Curriculum Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies has plans underway to prepare volumes similar to *Social Education of Young Children: Kindergarten-Primary Grades,* edited by Mary Willcockson (revised edition 1950) for the other stages of child growth. *Social Studies for Young Adolescents: Programs for Grades 7, 8, and 9,* edited by Julian Aldrich, will be published this summer.

Another volume, *Social Studies for Older Children: Programs for the Middle Grades,* with Loretta Klee as editor, is in preparation. The social studies program has been perhaps more controversial at the middle grade level than at any other in the school system. This book will discuss the issues on which schools differ as well as present the elements common to all good social studies programs in grades 4, 5, and 6. Programs from various schools illustrating different approaches are to be included. In addition, the volume will provide help on materials and will relate the latest findings in the area of child development and the social sciences to curricular problems in the middle grades. The editor will welcome your suggestions for other points to be included and especially for school programs that might be presented. Communicate with Loretta Klee, Supervisor of Social Studies, Senior High School, Ithaca, New York.—H.McC.C.

Audio-Visual Committee Report

A report of the activities of the NCSS Committee on Publications appeared in the March 1951 issue of the Journal. Following is a summary of the activities of the Audio-Visual Committee as reported by William H. Hartley, chairman.

1. Through the "Sight and Sound in Social Studies" department in *Social Education* the Committee kept NCSS members informed concerning recent developments in audio-visual materials and techniques. The Committee welcomes contributions and suggestions from members regarding ways in which this department may be improved.

2. A special subcommittee of the Audio-Visual Committee cooperated with Teaching Film Custodians in making available a number of classroom editions of feature films with social content. A complete list of these films may be obtained by writing to Teaching Film Custodians, 25 West 43 St., New York 18.

3. Several producers of filmstrips, motion pictures, maps, and records called upon the Audio-Visual Committee for advice and consultation during the year. The Committee stands ready at all times to offer assistance to those engaged in the preparation of classroom materials.

4. The Audio-Visual Committee is a cooperating member of the Junior Town Meeting League which sponsors open forum techniques in the classroom, assemblies, and on the air.

5. Service to NCSS members was carried on through correspondence with those who wrote to the national office or to the audio-visual editor of *Social Education* seeking information concerning classroom materials.

6. The Audio-Visual Committee sponsored a general session of "What's New in Audio-Visual Material for Social Studies" at the Minneapolis convention of the NCSS.

The members of Audio-Visual Committee for 1950 were William H. Hartley, W. Kenneth Fulkerson, John Hamburg, Harris Harvill, Nelle Lee Jenkinson, Kenneth S. Rehage, Fred Stutz, Richard E. Thursfield, Kenneth B. Thurston.

Middle States Council

The forty-seventh annual spring meeting of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies will be held in Washington, D.C., Friday and Saturday, April 20 and 21, 1951, with headquarters at American University.

The theme of the conference is "Shaping Foreign Policy." Opening meetings at the Department of State will feature a "World Round Up" briefing session of the type usually open only to key governmental officials.

A representative of the Department of State will treat "The Department of State and the Schools," explain the services, facilities, and materials of the Department of State available for the social studies teacher, and explore the role of teachers in helping to shape foreign policy. A panel of four critics, representing elementary, secondary, college, and teacher education, will comment upon the address in the light of their classroom needs.

"The Teacher's Role in World Affairs" will be

the topic for a symposium at American University Saturday morning. The discussants will include an American exchange teacher, a foreign educator, and someone who has taken part in international seminars and conferences. Three simultaneous meetings will then consider the role of foreign embassies, the future of the United Nations, and the part played by mass communication in U. S. foreign policy.

Dinner and luncheon guests on Friday and Saturday at American University will hear major speakers discuss "How U. S. Foreign Policy Is Made" and "The Individual's Responsibility in World Affairs." An informal reception, exhibits, and tours will highlight the meeting.

There will be a 50 cent registration fee for all nonmembers of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies. For further information, write Robert H. Reid, President, Middle States Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. R.H.R.

Greater Cleveland Council

New officers for the Greater Cleveland Council for the Social Studies were elected at the December meeting and assumed their responsibilities January 1, 1951. We have a membership of over 900. As past president, I would like to report on activities for 1950.

Since the teachers in this area affiliate with many professional groups, each having its program, the executive committee deemed it advisable to limit the council's offering to four meetings—two in the spring and two in the fall.

The first meeting in the spring, a panel on the Fair Employment Practices Commission, was an effort to give information on current questions. Represented on the panel were the executive secretary of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the assistant director of the Jewish Community Council, and the personnel director of a greeting card publishing company in the city.

Frank Siedel, author of a popular radio program, "The Ohio Story," author of a book bearing the same name, and a native son, was featured at our second spring meeting. Our objective on this occasion was to present a man prominent in a profession other than teaching who has a message for social studies teachers.

Early in the fall, a member of the Cleveland Board of Education, the editor of one of Cleveland's evening papers, and the director of the Cleveland Metropolitan Housing Authority, told us what the citizens expect of the social studies teacher. Both of our panels were moderated by Clyde Varner, director of Community Forums at the Cleveland Board of Education.

Our final meeting was delayed because of the "big snow" at Thanksgiving time, but we were eventually able to hear Carl Wittke, dean of the Graduate School of Western Reserve University give us his "Reflections on Social Studies Teaching."

We found that our custom of inviting speakers to have dinner with the members of the executive committee was popular. It afforded an opportunity to get better acquainted with the speakers, with each other, and also to express our appreciation to our guests. H.E.R.

Minnesota Council

The Minnesota Council for the Social Studies conference was held at the Stewart Hall, St. Cloud State Teachers College, February 16 and 17. At the one o'clock luncheon meeting, Joseph Kise, Moorhead State Teachers College, spoke on "The Overall Picture of the State Curriculum."

Several section meetings took place at 2:30 P.M. At the elementary school section meeting, Josephine Kremer of Austin was moderator during a discussion of "Putting the Elementary Curriculum into Action." The junior high school section meeting discussed several topics: "Suggestions for Implementing History in the Seventh Grade," by Taimi Ranta, Laboratory School, Duluth; "Suggestions for Implementing Ninth Grade Social Studies," by Emanuel Berning, Detroit Lake; and "Suggestions for the Use of Maps in Presenting the Introductory Unit World Patterns for the Eighth Grade," by Lyda Belthuis, Duluth Teachers College. Dr. Belthuis was chairman of the section. The senior high school section meeting heard a panel discussion of "Proposed Changes in the Social Studies Curriculum for the Senior High School." Henry M. Peters, International Falls, moderated the discussion. Panel members included Edna Nelson, Winona high school; John Schuilling, Bemidji; and Julius Opheim, Rochester.

At the section meeting for college teachers a panel composed of John Farley of St. Johns University, James G. Harries of the St. Cloud Teachers College, and Forrest A. Young, of Macalester College, with Carl Folkerts, St. Cloud Teachers College, moderator, discussed "Social Studies in College General Educational Program."

At the six o'clock dinner meeting Harold Deutsch of the University of Minnesota spoke on "The United States and the World Crisis."

THE FAR EAST

University of Cincinnati
Summer School, 1951

A program of studies on the Far East will be offered in the University of Cincinnati Summer School, with class sessions from 18 June through 21 July.* This program is intended to develop backgrounds and understanding of the Far East in its geographic, political, social, philosophical and religious aspects.

Lectures and discussions on selected phases of the program are scheduled for the early and mid-morning hours. A general course (The Far East: Synthesis) is scheduled for a late morning period. . . . All the work will be in charge of regular University faculty members who are specialists in their fields. Visiting leaders will be called upon for special topics, such as educational and military factors. . . . Designed for social science teachers and others who may be interested in acquainting themselves with the current problems of the Far East, no prerequisites have been set down. The courses carry either graduate or undergraduate credit or they may be taken without credit.

* Registration may be completed as early as Friday or Saturday morning, June 15-16. Pre-registration by mail is recommended.

For bulletin and further information address:

Dean, Summer School
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI
Cincinnati 21, Ohio

Two section meetings were held at 9:00 A.M. Saturday, one of which discussed audio-visual aids, and the other new materials, books, and methods in the social studies. A business meeting was held at 10:30 A.M. At the luncheon at twelve noon, Frank Atherton, an exchange teacher from England, spoke. L.W.

Des Moines, Iowa, Council

The January meeting of the Des Moines Council for the Social Studies was planned by asking all interested teachers to submit questions that they would like to hear discussed. Out of the questions submitted, seven were selected for a panel discussion, the highlights of which were covered in a newspaper interview. A lively question period wound up the discussion.

The panel topic was stated as "Readiness for Learning in the Social Studies" and the questions considered were:

1. What is "readiness" in the social studies?
2. How can one tell when any specific readiness exists? Say, for example, readiness for learning the importance of transportation to everyday life.
3. What evidences of readiness have been observed on the primary, elementary, junior high school, and senior high school levels in social studies?
4. When there appears to be no readiness to learn in any particular field, should the teacher "set the stage" to stimulate interest? To what extent can one develop "readiness" in the social studies?
5. How should an upper grade teacher meet the lack of readiness due to poor reading skill?
6. The author of this question believes that children's questions indicate their readiness to learn. Must a teacher wait until questions are asked about any subject before teaching it? How far should this principle be put into practice?
7. Since readiness is a "must" before any learning can be accomplished, what are some of the things teachers may do to develop it when, for example, there are wide variations in physical and social maturity or in background experiences? W.H.L.

Southwest Iowa Council

A meeting of the social studies teachers was called at the Southwest Iowa Education Association meeting October 6, 1950. Superintendent K. W. Miller of Missouri Valley presided. The provision of the new constitution of the Iowa Council for the Social Studies by which the presidents of social studies sections of the districts would become members of the ICSS Executive Board was explained by Garnet Welsch, Thomas Jefferson High School, Council Bluffs.

It was moved and passed that the Southwest Council for the Social Studies reorganize and affiliate with the Iowa Council. Officers were elected as follows: President, R. C. Warder; vice-president, Patricia Bleakley; and secretary-treasurer, Barbara Hansen. Clara Strickland of Thomas Jefferson High School, Council Bluffs, discussed the advantages of membership in the National Council and called attention to the forthcoming convention of the NCSS in November.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: Helen McCracken Carpenter, Robert H. Reid, Helen E. Reynolds, Luther V. Hendricks, Leona Winner, and Wendall H. Lawhead.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Ralph A. Brown

The Far East

The eyes and thoughts of Americans are concentrated on the Far East in these trying and uncertain months. Teachers of the social studies should not find it very difficult to develop this initial interest, possessed by large numbers of their students, into genuine desire for knowledge and, eventually, understanding. Some materials that will prove valuable to social studies teachers in working with Far Eastern topics are listed below:

Headline Series. Professor Edwin O. Reischauer of Harvard University, in the most recent of the Foreign Policy Association's Headline Books (22 East 38th St., New York 16; 35 cents), entitled *Toward a New Far Eastern Policy,* asserts his acceptance of the theory that Asian nationalism can be expected to weaken Russian domination of the Far East, even in nations under Communist rule.

The United States can harness the force of Asian nationalism, he asserts, by supporting the full independence of every Asian people, by honestly cooperating with the social change now upsetting old societies, by demonstrating toleration, and by helping the peoples of the Far East solve their economic problems.

This pamphlet also calls for an information program that will effectively carry the American case abroad, making clear "the contrast between the free world of peaceful cooperation between nations for which we stand and the individual slavery and revived imperialism which have been the products of Communist rule in Russia." Recognizing that these viewpoints are part of a long-range plan, the author also deals with immediate problems—with war and aggression.

Chicago Round Table. During last October and November, the University of Chicago Round Table devoted four different programs to topics connected with the Far Eastern area. The pamphlets which carry the record of the broadcasts, together with the addition of reading lists, additional material, and, sometimes, source documents, are of value to teachers (University of Chicago Round Table, Chicago 37; 10 cents per issue, or $3.00 per year).

No. 654, October 8, 1950, *Report on Communist China.*
No. 655, October 15, 1950, *U.S. Policy on Korea and the Far East.*
No. 656, October 22, 1950, *Confucius and Present-Day China.*
No. 660, November 19, 1950, *The Chinese Nightmare.*

Previous broadcasts in the same general area have included: *Korea, The Problem of Asia, Problems of Asia, Background of Korea, Americans in Asia, Indonesia, Report on Communist China, How Can We Win Friends in Asia?*

The War in Korea. Five cents will purchase from the Superintendent of Documents (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25) a copy of an eight-page pamphlet entitled *United Nations Action in Korea Under Unified Command,* seventh report to the Security Council, November 3, 1950. Covering a period of spectacular successes for the troops under General MacArthur's command, this pamphlet should be useful in the classroom to demonstrate historical change.

American Foreign Policy. The problem of American Foreign Policy, both in the Far East and elsewhere, is one that concerns increasing numbers of the American people. Teachers will find a recent statement by Senator Tom Connally, chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, useful in their class discussions. Entitled "Reviewing American Foreign Policy Since 1945," it first appeared in the Department of State *Bulletin* for October 9, 1950. It has now been reprinted in pamphlet form and may be obtained free of charge by addressing the Office of Public Affairs, Department of State, Washington 25.

Latin America

The cooperation of the American states, both in an effort to maintain peace and in any collective action for security, is of paramount importance. Many teachers of the social studies will find a strong student interest in this area, and those who are not so fortunate should make a genuine effort to arouse such interest. The Department of State has recently released a 13-page pamphlet of value in this connection: *Peace in the Americas; A Resume of Measures Taken*

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Through the Organization of American States to Preserve the Peace; with Relevant Documents (Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25; 10 cents).

The Pan American Union, Washington 6, has prepared a number of study kits for the study of individual Latin-American countries which sell for 25 cents each. Four of the study kits, general in nature, are entitled: *The Organization of American States and the Pan American Union; Introduction to Latin America; Food and Flowers of Americas;* and *Christmas in Latin America.*

The Pan American Union also offers a Club and Study Fine Arts Series at 50 cents each. This series consists of an illustrated monograph on *The Music of Latin America,* an illustrated anthology on *Art in Latin America,* and a compilation of translations of prose and poetry entitled *Literature in Latin America.*

Human Rights

The most recent Public Affairs Pamphlet (Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th St., New York 16; 20 cents) is Roger N. Baldwin's *Human Rights—World Declaration and American Practice.* Our outstanding fighter for civil rights believes that civil rights in the United States fall somewhat, but not seriously, short of the standards outlined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Commenting on the present U. N. discussion on the Covenant of Human Rights, which aims to put principles of the declaration into a binding pact, Baldwin asserts that "the guarantee of human rights on an international scale would be without force unless persons could appeal to an international authority after they had, as the lawyers say, exhausted their remedies in their own countries."

Four suggestions are set forth for making the international enforcement of human rights more effective: (a) Judicial review by an international court, acting on complaint of private associations, groups, or individuals, as well as governments. (b) Protective devices to aid in the enforcement of human rights, both through machinery in the United Nations and civil rights agencies in the prosecuting branches of the national governments. (c) Alert private nongovernmental agencies, acting on behalf of those whose rights are violated, both in the international field and nationally. (d) A special Human Rights Commission with independent power to investigate and enforce.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

Pattern for Survival. 20 minutes; sale: black and white, $100; color, $200. Cornell Film Co., 1501 Broadway, New York 18.

How can you stay alive in an atom blast? If one enemy plane gets through, will you die in the blast and the heat and the deadly gamma rays? This film is designed to show the viewers how to stay alive. It details defensive measures now approved by defense authorities. Step-by-step one learns what to do if no warning is given, where to find shelter, what materials are needed in the average home, and how to cleanse oneself of radioactivity.

This documentary film dramatizes personal defense against atomic attack. Featuring William L. Laurence, scientific writer for *The New York Times,* the only newspaperman who was officially assigned to cover the entire atomic project, it was filmed in cooperation with the Army, the Navy, and the American Red Cross.

This important film has been planned to reach the school child on his own level. He sees dozens of familiar scenes: a mother and children in the kitchen, men at work, automobiles, and people in the street. The language is simple and clear.

We have seen this film in use in several school systems and we were impressed by its calm, matter-of-fact manner, and the fact that it emphasizes defensive measures which the individual may take. After the film showing, the children who took part in bomb drills did so with seriousness of purpose and understanding of what they were doing. The film is suitable for upper elementary and secondary school pupils.

Recent 16-mm. Sound Films

Almanac Films, Inc., 516 Fifth Ave., New York 16.

The Dutch Way. 20 minutes; sale: black and white, $50; color, $160. How the Dutch have wrested their land from the sea and made a way of life for themselves.

Majestic Norway. 20 minutes; sale: black and white, $50; color $160. Tremendous glaciers, skyscraper mountains, fiords, rivers, and jagged coastline are shown, and the way in which the people have adapted to their environment is depicted.

Meet the Swedes. 20 minutes; sale: black and white, $50; color, $160. Swedish people at work and at play, in plant and factory, in forest, on the sea, and on the farm.

South Africa's Modern Cities. 10 minutes; sale: black and white, $50; color, $85. Visits to Johannesburg, Capetown, and Durban. Traces the last 50 years of the growth of these towns.

Association Films, Inc., 35 West 45th St., New York 19.

Apple Blossom Time in Poland. 20 minutes; rental, $3.00. The Tatra Mountain Spring festival, authentic songs and dances, and colorful glimpses of rural life.

For All the Ages. 13 minutes; color; free loan. The story of ice cream.

For Some Must Watch. 17 minutes; free loan. The story of a life insurance salesman and his contribution to community welfare.

Shortest Way Home. 33 minutes; color; free loan. A travel movie of America including scenes of Yellowstone Park, Texas, Williamsburg Va., the Smokies, New Orleans, Hollywood.

Audio-Visual, Inc., 116 Newbury St., Boston, Mass.

Story of the Boston Globe. 20 minutes; free loan. How news is gathered, edited, cast in type, and printed.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Every Drop To Drink. 20 minutes; rental, $2.50. How the problem of supplying pure water for the huge city of London is met.

Continental Illinois National Bank and Trust Co., Chicago 90.

Back of Every Promise. 27 minutes; free loan. How banks help business—local, state, national, and international.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

TEACHING BY DISCUSSION, series of three, two-reel films; sale, apply. The titles are *A Discussion in the Physical Sciences, A Discussion in History,* and *A Discussion in the Social Sciences.* The history film shows a college class engaged in a discussion of the French Revolution. The social science film shows a freshman class in college discussing Horace Mann's essay on free universal education. The films point up the role of the instructor as a guide and illustrate the contributions of the students to a well-planned, skillfully executed discussion period.

Sterling Films, Inc., 316 West 57th St., New York 19.

Biography of a Fish. 10 minutes; sale, $30. A prize winning picture of marine life.

Teaching Films Custodians, Inc., 25 West 43rd St., New York 18.

History Brought to Life. 10 minutes; long-term lease, $17.50. How Hollywood has brought famous scenes in history to the screen.

United Labor Committee to Defeat Taft-Hartley, 210 West 50th St., New York 19.

Solidarity. 10 minutes; sale, $50. How the unions function in a coal strike.

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Director of the Summer Session
The University of Wisconsin, Madison 6

U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, Graphic Services Section, 4800 Forbes St., Pittsburgh 13, Pa.

Texas and Its Natural Resources. 43 minutes; color; free loan. Shows the state's mineral and energy resources. Agriculture, cattle and sheep raising, transportation facilities, scenery, petroleum and natural gas industries are pictured.

United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29.

Communism. 32 minutes; sale, $38.72. History of Communism, its characteristics, and how Communists operate in the United States.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.

How To Build an Igloo. 10 minutes; sale, $45. Demonstrates igloo building in the far north, showing how a site is selected and how blocks of snow are used to make a snug shelter against the Arctic cold.

Filmstrips

Life Filmstrips, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

France in the 18th Century. 56 frames; sale, $4.50. Paintings, engravings, and color photographs show the spirit of reason and tolerance which permeated this period in France.

McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., Text Film Department, 330 West 42nd St., New York 18.

American Government Filmstrips. Set of 10 filmstrips; sale, $45; or $5 each. Titles are: "The Constitution—Principles and Methods of Change," "Federal System—Part I," "Federal System—Part II," "Political Parties and Elections," "Congress: Organization and Procedure," "The President: Office and Powers," "Federal Courts and Law Enforcement," "Public Administration and Civil Service," "Federal Finance," and "Foreign Relations."

New York Times, Office of Educational Activities, New York 18.

Pivot of Asia: India and Pakistan. 56 frames; sale, $2.00. Treats with India under British rule, the struggle for and granting of independence, establishment of India and Pakistan and subsequent problems.

Society for Visual Education, 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14.

The Story of Abraham Lincoln. 35 frames; color; sale, $5.00. "Honest Abe's" rise from cabin to White House, his struggles and victories, his grief and happiness.

The Story of George Washington. 28 frames; color; sale, $5.00. His early years, private life, army life, and career as President.

Stillfilm, Inc., 171 South Los Robles Ave., Pasadena 5, Calif.

A Day in the Life of a Fireman. 21 frames; sale, $2.00. A primary community-helper filmstrip.

Newspaper. 21 frames; sale, $2.00. The story of a modern newspaper from forest to home delivery.

Ships. 31 frames; sale, $2.00. Pictures of pleasure, industrial, passenger, and war ships for intermediate grades.

Trains. 23 frames; sale, $2.00. A primary filmstrip showing what you would see if you rode overnight on a train.

University of Michigan, Audio-Visual Education Center, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Legislative Process in Michigan. 61 frames; sale, $2.00 Traces the process of lawmaking in Michigan.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.
Consumer Education Series. set of 6 filmstrips; sale $16.50. Titles are "How to Buy a Blouse," "Your Retail Store," "Select Your Style," "Facts About Wool Fabrics," "Facts About Cotton Fabrics," and "Facts About Rayon Fabrics."

Of All Things

Write to the British Information Services (30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20) for a free booklet and full information on a film series called *The Modern Age.* These motion pictures furnish background, current status, and probable future on such issues as the Far East, disunity in Europe, soil erosion, struggle for oil, crime detection methods, and women in public life.

A catalog of 2 x 2-inch Kodachrome slides of the West showing national parks, scenic views, flora and fauna may be had by writing to West-View, 1518 Montana Ave., Santa Monica, Calif.

"Road Maps of Industry" are weekly charts dealing with current developments throughout the broad field of economics based upon the latest available statistics from government and other accredited sources. These charts are printed in color on heavy paper, measure 8½ x 11 inches and are punched for filing. They may be obtained free from the National Industrial Conference Board, 247 Park Ave., New York 17.

A *Railroad Film Directory* containing a description of about 200 films and filmstrips which may be obtained free on loan, is now available from the Association of American Railroads, Transportation Bldg., Washington 6, D.C. The list also includes many films which feature agricultural and industrial developments as well as recreational and scenic attractions in the United States, Canada, and Mexico.

"A List of Articles on Maps and Their Use in Geographic Education" is now available from the National Council of Geography Teachers, State Teachers College, Oswego, New York. Known as Professional Paper No. 10, this list is an annotated bibliography of 102 articles covering many phases in the use of maps in the classroom. For a copy send 25 cents to the above address.

A large wall chart entitled "How Natural Rubber Is Grown" is free from the Natural Rubber Bureau, 1631 K St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. This chart contains a series of pictures, a map, and a chart showing rubber harvesting on small holdings of over 400,000 Malayan growers.

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New York) has just published a new "Price List and Correlation Chart of Teaching Films." A total of 108 teaching films are listed for all grade levels, from the primary grades to college and adult, and for all school subjects. This publication is so organized that it provides immediate information as to the recommended grade level and curriculum area for each film. Copies of this chart are free of charge.

The Foster and Stewart Publishing Corp. (210 Ellicott St., Buffalo 3, N.Y.) features a monthly cut-out for elementary grades social studies. The current cut-out is about Israel. It consists of sixteen 8½ x 11-inch pages of village scenes, family life, homes, animals, costumes, and a puzzle map all done in natural color. Complete, authentic facts are printed on the back of each figure. The cut-outs cost 50 cents each and the following are now available: North American Indians, Eskimos of Alaska, Switzerland, Japan, Australia, Mexico, Netherlands, India, Arabia, China, Israel, France, and Africa.

With each order for five maps, the Friendship Press (156 Fifth Ave., New York 10) will send free a 5-color political map of Japan and Korea. Friendship maps cost 75 cents each and are available on Alaska, China, Africa, South America, Japan, the world, India, the United States, and Southeast Asia. Each map is printed on heavy paper, 32 x 26 inches in size.

Excellent bulletin board material in the form of colorful posters may be obtained from the F. A. Owen Publishing Co. (Dansville, N.Y.). Sets of posters are available on health, safety, and citizenship at $1.25 per set. Posters on community helpers, symbols of freedom, and symbols of democracy are $1.50 per set.

Helpful Articles

Anderson, Celia. "Use of Films in a Workshop Abroad." *The Journal of Educational Sociology* 24:193-95; December 1950. The use of films in a study of anthropology and their relation to the development of objective and accurate observation.

Andrews, Joe. "Audio-Visual Reading Guidance." *The English Journal* 40:33-36; January 1951. A record of an experiment in the use of audio-visual aids in reading guidance.

Latendress, Hazel. "A Geography Project for Upper Grade Level." *The Journal of Geography* 50:10-12; January 1951. How a class helped to make a mural of a simplified Mercator projection of the world.

Lottick, Kenneth V. "How Films Teach." *Educational Screen* 30:16-17; January 1951. An evaluation by students of the films, *How To Write Your Term Paper* and *How To Judge Authorities.*

Book Reviews

A History of the Modern World. By R. R. Palmer. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950. li + 900 p. $5.00.

It is perhaps a pity that we can not drop the word textbook since this term suggests to many a digest of facts hastily compiled for profit. Texts, in short, are not regarded as works of serious scholarship. Because of this peculiar prejudice, truly excellent general histories seldom receive the attention they deserve from professional historians. No doubt the publishers of Professor Palmer's book expect and intend that it will find its largest sale among students enrolled in college history courses, but it would be unfortunate if others ignore it merely because it is labelled a text. Make no mistake, this is a thoughtful work and, to this reviewer, a truly scholarly general history is worth twenty special studies devoted to answering questions which no one would ever think of asking.

In spite of the title, the book is essentially a history of European civilization as the author explains in the preface. It primarily emphasizes recent times; about half of its pages treat the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. There are, however, penetrating chapters which show how the roots of the modern West reach to ancient and medieval times. No part of this history is really removed from today, for throughout the author seeks answers to present questions. Thus, when discussing the eighteenth century, Professor Palmer points out the economic and social differences between eastern and western Europe in that period, a matter which obviously helps us understand the mid-twentieth century. Present issues are not carefully segregated in a few final chapters; they penetrate the whole book.

The book reflects the increasing attention now given to the history of ideas. Intellectual history instead of being treated merely as an appendage serves as one of the main threads of the narrative.

Since the book is not just a collection of facts, those who already know the facts can profit from reading it. The author's interpretations and his discussion of what is truly significant in modern history should stimulate both history teacher and professional student. Unfortunately the very qualities which make the book valuable for the teacher may limit its value for college classes, for some may find that it calls for a background knowledge and an ability for thoughtful reading not possessed by all undergraduates. Yet, those who can profit from attentive reading of a mature book can find no better recently published modern history.

Kenneth S. Cooper
George Peabody College for Teachers

●

America's Role in World Affairs. By Emil Lengyel. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950. xii + 380 p. $2.00.

If it can be said that publishers' lists tend to reflect the interests of readers, then we can conclude with assurance that foreign policy is a major concern of the reading public in America. For publishers' catalogs currently are crammed with titles on foreign affairs, ranging from superficial treatments of "cold war" issues to comprehensive studies on our relations with specific areas of the world.

New offerings continue to appear in such rapid-fire order that it is impossible for the average reader to keep abreast of them—and perhaps that is just as well if one is at all interested in preserving his sanity. Books on foreign policy—not to mention Congressional hearings and debates or the numerous public addresses heard lately—have helped to bring about a near-disastrous state of confusion in our thinking. We frequently stop to ask ourselves such questions as these: What does it all mean? Have we ever *had* a foreign policy? What is our foreign policy *now*? What is our best course for the future?

It is encouraging, therefore to come across a title like *America's Role in World Affairs*. Here is a brief, straightforward account of the course of American foreign policy from the pronouncement of the Monroe Doctrine in 1823 to the current struggle between Russia and the United States in 1950. It is addressed primarily to students in American colleges and secondary schools, but its appeal is broad enough to stir the interest of any sincere observer of America's relationships with other nations. It is simple enough, in addition, to be used as a handbook on foreign policy by the uninitiated. A series of questions and suggested activities at the end of each chapter increases its usefulness as a text for both student

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and teacher. And a 45-page appendix includes the full texts of 14 basic foreign policy documents, beginning with Wilson's "Fourteen Points" and ending with the "North Atlantic Treaty."

Although the author's thesis is not new, its importance remains undiminished. Stressing anew that the foreign policy of a democratic country can be only as good as the quality of public opinion behind it, he urges that the American people seek fuller understanding of America's role in world affairs—especially in view of the fact that there is no possibility of peace in the world without a workable agreement between Russia and the United States.

More than two-thirds of the book is given over to consideration of U. S. foreign policy since the end of World War I. Early chapters deal with Department of State machinery for handling foreign policy, and our relations with the Western hemisphere, the Far East, and Europe. The rest of the book—the last seven chapters—outlines what the author calls the "new deal" in foreign policy, beginning with the recognition of Russia and the gradual development of global concepts. Three of these chapters trace the trying course of the United Nations and record some of its diplomatic achievements. Another examines a variety of international patterns for ensuring peace, treating the League of Nations in considerable detail. A final chapter, "The Shape of Things To come," considers a number of the more recent suggestions for international organization, such as the plans endorsed by the United World Fedaralists, Federal Union, and the Quakers.

Concerning the United Nations—and we presume that the author feels the same way about the various world government proposals he describes—Mr. Lengyel is convinced that it can fulfill its ultimate aims only when its two strongest members compose their differences. "Until then," he writes, "the various agencies of the United Nations will serve as frameworks of the deeds to be accomplished if this best hope of mankind is to have an enduring place in man's ever turbulent history."

How to deal with Russia is the question that overshadows every diplomatic move today. The author does not presume to answer the question, but he suggests that a carefully-thought-out foreign policy can go a long way toward determining a satisfactory solution to the current impasse. He concludes his volume on an optimistic note by quoting from a speech of Arnold J. Toynbee to an American audience:

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America's Role in World Affairs is the latest volume in Harper's "The American Way" series, under the general editorship of S. P. McCutchen.

WILLIAM J. SHORROCK

Civic Education Service
Washington, D.C.

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DEMOCRACY DEMANDS IT: A RESOURCE UNIT FOR INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE HIGH SCHOOL. By William Van Til, John J. DeBoer, R. Will Burnett, and Kathleen Coyle Ogden. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950. 117 p. Cloth, $1.50; paper, $1.00.

It was Theodore Roosevelt who commonly referred to "the foes of our own household" when describing wrongs needing to be righted. During World War II we learned how the Japanese used the situation of the American Negro at home as an example to the Chinese of the white man's attitude toward the colored. Today, poised in national emergency, and looking, now toward Europe, now toward Asia, we are again aware of our lack of national unity based in part on racial, religious, and socio-economic differences. A Civil Rights program can split a major political party. Religious differences can prevent extension of public education. The existence of racial equality in a territory can be a barrier to its admission to the Union as a state. Thus, the very title of this book brings renewed forcefulness to the urgent need for improved intercultural relations —*Democracy Demands It.*

This book is a collaborative undertaking in several ways. The writers are three University of Illinois professors of education specializing in the teaching of social studies, science, and English, and a research assistant in curriculum in the Detroit Public Schools. The chairman of the group, William Van Til, will be recalled as a co-editor, with Hilda Taba, of the Sixteenth Yearbook (1945) of the National Council for the Social Studies, entitled, *Democratic Human Relations.* The cosponsors of the book here reviewed



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are the National Council for the Social Studies, the National Science Teachers Association, and the National Council of Teachers of English. The publishers have added this title to their series on intercultural education.

In *Democracy Demands It,* we have a working handbook written clearly and explicitly for the teacher who wants information on how to start a unit on intercultural relations or, having started, wants more ideas, or film titles, or sources of supplementary materials. All of these in abundance will be found in the book. In Part III, for example, some sixteen units are briefly described as they might be used in a high school social studies, science, or English class. A few of these are: "The Jewish People in Our Community and in America," "Religions in American Life," "The Negroes in American Life," "Races to Which the People of the World Belong," "Prejudice in American Life."

The approach to one or another of these units, it is pointed out, may stem from a previous unit of study, or out of a fresh start of teacher-pupil planning, out of a current problem arising in the community or the world, or out of a situation "staged" by the teacher. There is no one best way. And that applies to the learning experiences, too. Section V, entitled "A Variety of Learning Experiences," is the longest section in the book. Many types of learning experiences are described, such as, interviews, social travel, surveys, speakers, experiments, and group learning processes. The experienced as well as the inexperienced teacher will benefit from the reading and use of this book.

HAROLD M. LONG

Glens Falls (N.Y.) High School

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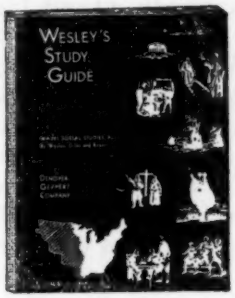
OUR TEACHERS MOLD OUR NATION'S FUTURE. By Geraldine Saltzberg. New York: Macmillan Co., 1949. xv + 189 p. $2.25.

Because today in our public schools we are teaching *all* the children of *all* the people, it follows that the teacher must be equipped to meet the needs of *all* types of pupils in their learning experiences to become efficient citizens. The book, *Our Teachers Mold Our Nation's Future,* will help provide teachers with such an equipment. In the author's words: "This book discusses attitudes and practices that should promote the growth of the pupil as a human being,

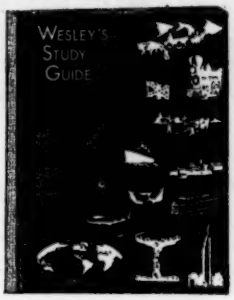
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and which should, at the same time, stimulate the development of the teacher. In addition, the teacher will find herein specific, practical suggestions for mastery of the technique of teaching boys and girls from the ninth through the twelfth years of their schooling, under the system of education that now exists."

The book is divided into six chapters: The Teacher; New Approaches; Education Through Self Discipline; Desirable Habits and Attitudes Through School Situations; Teaching Principles Applied to Special Types; Contacts with School Authorities and the Community.

A feature of the book valuable to teachers is the use of case histories which "represent actual experiences which teachers have had with pupils in their classrooms and with these same boys and girls grown older."

Miss Saltzberg states, "One of the most important guiding principles in all teaching is to teach a pupil rather than a subject."

"Teaching the pupil rather than the subject," she says, "implies that all subject teachers must use their particular specialty as a means of guiding their students into acquiring worthy habits and attitudes."

In the chapter on Newer Approaches, she emphasizes the need for understanding pupils, for winning their confidence, for affirmative thinking and constructive doing, and for overcoming discouragement. She suggests devices for achieving these ends.

Of special value to teachers is the chapter on Teaching Principles Applied to Special Types. The author discusses the problems of various types of pupils. Selected for study are: The Slow Pupil; The Antagonistic Pupil; The Overconfident Pupil; The Underconfident Pupil; The Docile Pupil. "The main principle," says Miss Saltzberg, "is to find out what they need and to see that they get it, constructively."

The book is both realistic and practical in its approach to and solution of problems of teacher and pupil. In a novel, attractive, and outstanding conclusion, the author sums up her philosophy of successful teaching in "Ten Commandments for Teachers." It should be a "must" book on every teacher's reading list.

CLARA V. BRAYMER

Trenton, New Jersey



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SEA ROAD TO THE INDIES. By Henry H. Hart. New York: Macmillan Co., 1950. 296 p. $4.50.
FORGOTTEN PATRIOT: ROBERT MORRIS. By Eleanor Young. New York: Macmillan Co., 1950. 280 p. $4.00.

These two historical studies of the past year have much in common in spite of their treating completely unrelated subjects. They present detailed information on important aspects of well-known episodes of history; they are, moreover, broadly descriptive of the historical period; and both possess significant qualities of historiography, imagination, and readability.

Dr. Hart's volume is an illuminating account of the early Portuguese explorers and adventurers. The names of Prince Henry, Dias, and da Gama are almost as familiar as those who sailed into the Western hemisphere. But here for the first time in convenient form and vivid detail is the record of these men and their daring voyages along the African coastline and on to India. Also included is the narrative of Pero de Covilhan's incredible journey through Africa to India. *Sea Road to the Indies* is crowded with colorful and exciting passages of the difficulties and achievements of these heroic seamen.

Miss Young has also brought into the spotlight of history a dim subject: the financial aspects of the American War of Independence. Writing a biography of Robert Morris, Miss Young is largely concerned with business and financial activities, particularly those of the Minister of Finance during the Revolution. Morris's contributions to the cause are fully explained, and she describes completely the unrestrained land speculation in which Morris participated and which eventually placed him behind bars.

Although mainly biographical, the two volumes provide rich views of the background setting for each of the subjects. Dr. Hart provides an unsurpassed view of the fabulous communities of three continents in the fifteenth century. The reader can experience both the hardships of early sea travel and the sensational and everyday features of life along the trade routes of Europe, Asia, and Africa. The Hart treatise is enriched by the reproduction of source materials.

Life at the end of the colonial era, during the revolutionary period, and in the early republic is capably delineated by Miss Young. She gives a well-rounded, yet untechnical, account of the prevailing business operations. She has, in addition, uncovered new materials on Morris's life, but, unfortunately, in spite of the descriptive treatment, he does not come alive as a convincing human being. A precise explanation of Morris's motives is missing from the Young biography.

There is every reason to believe, however, that these two books would constitute rewarding reading experiences. They would be excellent outside reading in the senior high school history class. The clarity of expression and the imaginative composition will appeal to most teachers, and the information on subject matter cannot be overlooked.

WILLIAM G. TYRRELL
Columbia University

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THE AWAKENING VALLEY. By John Collier, Jr., and Aníbal Buitrón. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1949. 199 p. $6.00.

The Otavalo Indians of Ecuador's high sierra are as handsome, as worthy of respect, as dignified, and as virile as the faces and figures and families which John Collier (ably assisted by his wife) shows us in the one hundred and sixty-seven photographs which tell of an astounding social and economic "miracle." Visitors and foreigners resident in Ecuador (this reviewer among

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them) invariably return home bearing witness to some of the fruits of the revolution which this book portrays so well. The story of how the Otavalans have risen above poverty and servility is told chiefly through photographs, *enriched* by the text, thus reversing the usual relationship between word and illustration. Aníbal Buitrón, an Ecuadorean whose anthropological training is American, is uniquely qualified by a lifetime of first-hand knowledge to write about the Otavalans. Buitrón is ably assisted by his wife, an American-born anthropologist now working with her husband in Ecuador, in studying the problems of its millions of Indians.

The text contains much of the poetry of the Spanish language in which it was originally written, plus a dash of the salty *Quechua,* the ancient language in which the Otavalans told Buitrón of their lives and loves and labors. Tucked away in the Acknowledgments is an expression of appreciation to one Aurelio Buitrón—the father of Aníbal Buitrón—"former *comisario nacional* (justice of the peace) of the *canton* of Otavalo." A trained anthropologist with an intimate understanding of the Otavalans and a gifted artist-photographer and literary collaborator have produced a book of enduring charm and unique values.

The Awakening Valley is appropriate for junior and senior high school libraries or social studies supplementary reading. It is equally appropriate for more mature readers who will find that its brightly told story of a primitive people learning to adjust to the impacts of contemporary European-American culture contributes to their better understanding of a world-wide problem. The reader who may later chance to meet a dignified barefoot Otavalan as a fellow passenger on a Pan American Clipper between Quito and Bogotá, Lima, or Panama will not be surprised; *The Awakening Valley* will have prepared him. He will be a witness to an incident in a social and economic "miracle" which has been the salvation of a proud people and the hope of millions like them.

DOUGLAS S. WARD
University of Illinois

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Publications Received

Cunningham, Ruth, and associates. *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1951. xviii + 446 p. $3.25.

De Grazia, Alfred. *Public and Republic: Political Representation in America.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1951. xiii + 262 p. $3.50.

Devereux, George. *Reality and Dream.* New York: International Universities, 1951. xxi + 438 p. $7.50.

Martindale, Don, and Monachesi, Elio D. *Elements of Sociology.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951. xi + 724 p. $5.00.

Miller, Delbert C., and Form, William H. *Industrial Sociology.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951. xi + 896 p. $6.00.

Montagu, Ashley. *Statement of Race.* New York: Henry Schuman, 1951. xi + 172 p. $2.00.

Patterson, S. Howard; Little, A. W. Selwyn; and Burch, Henry Reed. *Problems in American Democracy.* Second revision. New York: Macmillan, 1951. viii + 639 p. $3.48.

Pestalozzi, Heinrich; Introduction by William H. Kilpatrick, *The Education of Man: Aphorisms.* New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. 93 p. $2.75.

Somers, Herman Miles. *Presidential Agency: OWMR.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1950. xiii + 238 p. $4.50.

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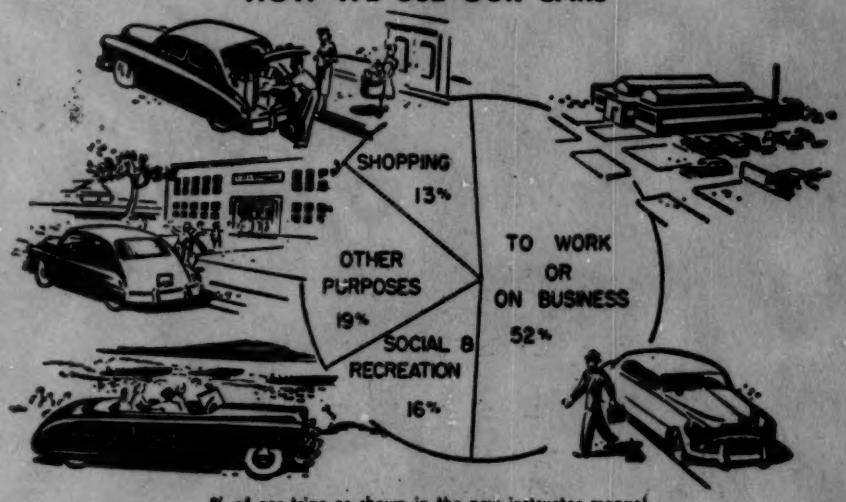
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